

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 7, 1882.

## The Week.

As some of the members of Congress listened to the reading of the President's message on Monday, there must have occurred to them the melancholy reflection that, if they had given heed to its views of the River and Harbor Bill when they were first advanced by its author, the present might not be their last session at Washington. The President is enabled to return to the subject now with the approval by an enormous popular majority of his effort to save the Treasury from this gigantic scheme of plunder. It would scarcely have been worth while for him to resume the discussion merely to show that he was wiser than some of the members of his party in Congress. He recalls the question in order to mention a new and serious objection to such legislation, and for the very practical purpose of preventing it during the present session. He gives official authority for the report, already informally published, that there is a very large unexpended balance (\$17,734,944) of appropriations for internal improvements. There can, therefore, be no excuse for the re-introduction of the job now, even by the most reckless members of that school of statesmen who agree with Mr. Young, of Ohio, that the whole duty of a Representative to his constituents consists in apportioning patronage and securing the largest possible appropriation. It is probable, however, that in any event we should be safe on this score for a few months. With the President and his Treasury officers calling for a reduction of expenditures and taxes, and some of the oldest and most pachydermatous politicians suddenly betraying the liveliest anxiety for reform of all kinds, it would require a great deal of hardihood for Congress to repeat just now its raid upon the Treasury by way of the sandy creeks and mountain rivulets of the interior.

The views of the question of revenue reform taken by the President and the Secretary of the Treasury are independent, and in some respects conflicting. The most remarkable difference relates to internal taxation. Of taxes of this kind, the President recommends the repeal of all except those levied on distilled spirits. Last year he excepted also tobacco and fermented liquors. In supporting this change of opinion, he says that "the system of excise duties has never commended itself to the favor of the American people." This argument, so far as it has weight, applies with equal force to all excise duties. It is the ground upon which such Democrats as Mr. Randall and such Republicans as Mr. Kelley demand the total abrogation of the Internal Revenue establishment. If this repugnance of the American people exists in regard to ale and cigars, it exists also in regard to whiskey. So far as the President's change of opinion is founded upon views of the financial situation of the Government, these are not shared by the Secretary of the Treasury. Mr. Folger, who

favors the continuance of the taxes on spirits, fermented liquors, and tobacco, says that the retention of these "will still leave a large sum to be raised from other sources, so that there is not a pressing need of a reduction here." The Secretary evidently does not believe that the revenue requirements of the Government will permit of the exemption of ale and tobacco, if the modifications of the tariff which he and the President favor are to be effected. Both of them urge a reduction of duties on sugar and molasses, wool and woollen manufactures, iron and steel, and cotton and silk manufactures. Another point of difference between them is that the Secretary in a qualified way favors the continuance of the tax on bank circulation, as a franchise and a privilege.

The report of the Tariff Commission, so far as its contents have been disclosed, is a much more impressive document than was generally looked for. The Commission being composed for the most part of representatives of highly protected trades, it was commonly supposed that the report would recommend that the tariff remain substantially as it now is. If it be true that they have recommended a reduction equal to twenty or twenty-five per cent. all around, with greater reductions in particular cases, such as the duties on blankets and steel rails, we shall not withhold from them the approbation which so wholesome a reform merits. Such a reduction of duties, if enacted by Congress, will increase rather than lessen the revenues of the Government.

The most important part of Mr. Folger's report relates to means for insuring a more regular and certain disbursement of the Treasury surplus. The plan of depositing it in banks against a counter-deposit of Government bonds is already used to some extent. The Secretary does not favor an extension of the system, because the banks might fail, and thus cause embarrassment to the Treasury. This objection does not seem very forcible. These deposits are virtually call loans secured by Government bonds. If the loans are not paid on demand, the Treasury has the right to sell the securities. It is difficult to imagine a case in which the securities would not bring the money. And since it is only the surplus, the excess of receipts over ordinary disbursements, that is concerned, the danger of embarrassment to the Government would seem to be slight. We think that there is room here for the Secretary to revise his opinion. The subject is one of very great importance, and is likely to become more instead of less important as the debt-paying process goes on. Reduction of taxation is the remedy proposed by the Secretary for the inconvenient surplus, "so that no more will be taken from the people than enough to carry on the Government with economy, to meet all its obligations that must be met from year to year, to pay off with reasonable celerity the part of the debt which it may pay at pleasure, and to provide through the Sinking Fund for the

payment of that which will become payable by and by." This is a very indefinite statement, but perhaps existing conditions do not permit a more definite one. To pay the debt "with reasonable celerity" may mean anything from \$166,000,000 a year down to the legal requirement of the sinking fund—viz., one per cent. per annum of the principal. It all depends upon the view which the individual may take of "reasonable celerity." This is now one of the burning questions of the hour, and we shall not be surprised to find parties sharply divided upon it, one side holding that the debt ought to be paid off as speedily as possible, and the other that it ought to be paid as slowly as possible.

Among the curious signs of the times are some letters published by the Boston *Advertiser* on Monday from well-known Senators and Representatives, containing their views as to the proper policy for the Congress which has just met. There is evidently a growing conviction among Republicans that something ought to be done. Senator Harrison says that there should be a reduction in "internal and customs revenue," both of which "should be dealt with this winter." He regards the creation of the Tariff Commission as "a confession that the tariff needs revision"—although a great many other people have regarded it as a scheme to avoid or postpone revision. Mr. Harrison is in favor of sitting during the holidays, and in other ways overcoming "the threatened Democratic opposition" to the movement. He evidently suspects that the Democrats will try to defeat reform until the meeting of the next Congress, when they will get the whole credit for it—a dangerous course for them to pursue. Mr. Dawes is in favor of abolishing all internal-revenue taxes, except those on liquors, tobacco, and bank circulation, and further of a reduction of the tariff to the lowest possible point which will enable it, together with the internal revenue, to "furnish the requirements of the Sinking Fund and the strictest economy of current expenditure." He seems to think "the tariff could be reduced \$100,000,000 by a proper adjustment between free raw material and dutiable manufactures, so that American industries would be stronger for the revision." Senator Frye says that internal taxes, except those on spirits and tobacco, should be repealed, and that "the necessity of tariff revision is imperative." Representative Kasson favors the enlargement of the reductions provided for by the pending Internal Revenue Bill—not, however, so as to include distilled spirits. Senator Sherman proposes the repeal of internal taxes, excepting those on spirits, tobacco, and beer. He says nothing specific about the tariff, although he is in favor of applying "reduction to such taxes, both internal and external, as are now felt to be most burdensome by the people." Representative W. D. Kelley heroically stands fast in the faith that the tariff will not be revised. Senator Hoar is "clearly of the opinion that it is

wise to proceed with the matter without delay," though he doubts "the disposition of the Democrats." It might be supposed from some of these letters that the Republicans all along have been eager for revenue reform, and that the Democrats have been as determinedly opposing it. Evidently light has spread widely and rapidly in a few months.

Mr. Beck, we are glad to see, has moved resolutions in the Senate looking to a full inquiry into Hubbell's operations and accounts as a collector of assessments on Government employees. As Hubbell is himself a member of Congress, and acted as the agent of a committee of Congressmen, his activity last summer constituted a scandal of the first magnitude, which neither Republicans nor Democrats can afford to pass over unnoticed, now that the constituencies have spoken so plainly about it. The objections to the collection of money from Government clerks for political purposes, under any circumstances, are obvious. Collecting it through intimidation, which the President in his message condemns, is still worse. Congress now owes it to itself to find out what Hubbell did with the money. This is not a mere party matter. It is one which touches the integrity of every member of Congress, and the purity of popular elections. If any portion of Hubbell's fund has been applied to enable Congressmen to retain their seats, or to assist their friends to get into public life, it is about the worst electioneering abuse ever brought to light.

A Mr. Lorin Blodgett, formerly in the employment of the Census Bureau during the late census, has turned on his chief, General Walker, and accused him of displaying his free-trade malignity toward Philadelphia by "falsifying the returns of the industries of Philadelphia for the purpose of discrediting and disranking the industries of the city." The charge is so very serious as to be quite comic, and General Walker has answered it by expressing his contempt for Mr. Blodgett, whom he in his turn accuses of having swelled the returns of the Philadelphia industries to the highest extent a prejudiced judgment would permit, the result being "a grossly inflated report," which he had to have corrected by Mr. Awott, a more competent person. Mr. Blodgett is also charged with bad faith by the Smithsonian Institution, in whose employ he once was, and in fact seems to be surrounded with troubles, but determined to find friends if he can among the Philadelphia manufacturers, and probably things more substantial than friendship. He ought, however, to have given his charge against General Walker more range and sweep. It would do the free-trade cause little good, even if General Walker were more of a free-trader than he is, to cut down the Philadelphia industries alone. Blodgett ought to have made him attack all American industries in his career of falsification—those of New York and Massachusetts, as well as of Pennsylvania. We are surprised there is no mention of British gold in Mr. Blodgett's charge, although he must be very sanguine or simple if he expects people to believe that

General Walker would falsify in the free-trade interest without getting some gold from Great Britain.

The suit over the title to the Arlington estate of the late General Lee, now a vast Union burying-ground, has been decided by the Supreme Court in favor of the Lee heirs. The estate was sold by the Government during the war for non-payment of taxes. Although the amount of the tax was tendered, the Tax Commissioners took the ground that they would not receive the amount from any one but the owner in person; and as the owner was in command of the Rebel army, he could not or would not appear. The Court now holds that the Commissioners had no right to impose any such condition, that they were bound to accept payment of the taxes by whomsoever tendered, and that the sale of the property under these circumstances was a taking without compensation, from which the Constitution protects everybody not convicted of crime. Four of the Judges—Waite, Gray, Bradley, and Wood—dissent, but their opinions have not yet been published. Of course the Lee heirs will not now obtain possession of the estate, and do not seek it, but they will have to get its value from Congress. One of the interesting features in the case was the overruling of Attorney-General Devens's demurrer to the jurisdiction of the court, that the Government's consent was necessary to its being sued in its own courts, which in this case had not been given.

The Cincinnati *Catholic Telegraph*, which recently proposed a grand lottery to pay Archbishop Purcell's debts, continues to speak very plainly on the necessity of doing something to discharge the obligation. On Thursday it referred to "the ruined lives, the blasted hopes, the desolate homes, the tears of the widows and orphans," and even the "deaths of some who, it is feared, have died the second death," all of which distressing consequences have flowed from the Archbishop's original method of book-keeping and imperfect acquaintance with investments. The *Telegraph* does not stop with vague generalities of this sort, but attacks the "repudiating priests" of the Cincinnati Diocese, and asserts that efforts already made to raise money to pay the debt failed through the opposition or indifference of the clergy of that diocese. It mentions, without naming him, an Archbishop who said that if the Pope had sent him to Cincinnati he would have paid the debt, and if the priests had refused to co-operate to that end, there would have been "some vacant parishes within forty-eight hours." Perhaps it is not too late to put this vigorous prelate where he would do the most good. The energetic revival of the subject by the Roman Catholic organ, under its new management, is likely to cause some excitement, but it will be a wholesome one if it convinces those who are responsible in the premises, that a great church cannot afford to rest under the reproach of this unpaid debt of honor. If such mismanagement of a secular trust had occurred, there would have been no end of attachments, receiverships, and or-

ders of arrest. The plea that the trustee had acted in good faith would have been no defense to a suit to recover the money. It ought to be none in the court of morals in which alone, it seems, the Archbishop's unfortunate depositors have a standing. There is this encouragement to make an effort to satisfy their claims, that all the money collected will go to that object. In a secular proceeding the entire assets might be exhausted by receivers' and counsel fees.

Unless Congress is prepared to see the purpose of the Yellowstone National Park defeated, it will give heed to what General Sheridan says about it in his report to the War Department. It seems that the Park is "rented out to private parties." Of course, they are using it "for money-making purposes"; and not only, as General Sheridan says, is it probable that "claims and conditions will arise that may be hard for the Government and the courts to shake off," but such a present disposition of the place will impair, if it does not wholly destroy, its character in the future as a unique popular possession. For example, one of its features should be that of a great game preserve. It appears that since its discovery as many as 4,000 elk have been "killed by skin-hunters" in the Park, and that during last winter alone as many as 2,000 were slaughtered, besides mountain-sheep, deer, and other animals. At this rate how long will there be any game left to preserve? General Sheridan recommends that the Park be extended in an easterly direction about forty miles, so as to add 3,844 square miles to its area, and "make a preserve for the large game of the West now so rapidly decreasing." This recommendation is a good one, as well as the further suggestions that "the improvements in the Park should be national" and controlled by the Government, and that "small appropriations be made and expended each year on roads and trails," etc. He says that a small body of troops will "keep out the skin-hunters and all other hunters," and make the Park a safe resort for the game now drifting toward it. This is manifestly the easiest way to police the Park.

That the police in Cincinnati, or in any city, should permit such an exhibition as that in which the actress, Miss Von Behren, lost her life last week, is very extraordinary. Frank Frayne, the manager of the company, in the play "Si Slocum," had to shoot an apple on Miss Von Behren's head by "a backward shot," aimed with the aid of a mirror. He had done the feat many times before, in fact had been doing it for years successfully, with only one mishap, in which his ball, after having passed through the apple, and through a piece of wood intended to stop it, lodged in the foot of a "supe." Since then Mr. Frayne is said to have improved his apparatus, and was certain either to hit the apple or miss the woman, unless something went wrong. But something did go wrong. His rifle was a breech-loader, and the catch which holds the barrel in the groove after loading broke or failed when the shot was fired, allowing the breech to fly up, and thus depress the muzzle and lodge the ball in Miss Von Behren's brain.

She dropped dying on the stage, leaving the unfortunate Frayne, to whom, it appears, she was engaged, half crazed with horror and grief. Such a performance seeks to gratify the same craving for excitement as that of crossing Niagara on a tight rope, putting one's head in the lion's mouth, jumping from high bridges into the water, and fighting angry bulls in the arena. They all owe a large part of their attractiveness to the fact that they put the life of a human being in a greater or less degree of danger. As simple feats of dexterity or agility they would not "draw" nearly so well. No performance on the tight-rope, for instance, is thoroughly taking unless the man is sure to be killed if he falls. The delight of seeing a man's head in a lion's mouth lies mainly in the probability or possibility that the lion will bite it off and stick his claws into his legs. And what makes bull-fighting so fascinating to the Spaniards is not simply the address and skill with which the bull is killed, but the chance that he may kill the man, or give him a good goring.

In all these cases, however, the chief actor runs all the risk. He takes only his own life in his hands, and it is difficult to find a perfectly conclusive argument against a man's being allowed to earn his living by taking risks for the amusement of his fellows, considering how many risks almost equally great we allow him to take in order to supply them with luxuries. But there is a broad line of distinction between this kind of entertainment and that in which the performer is allowed to furnish entertainment by putting another person's life in peril, in case he fails. Granting everything that can be said in favor of his taking risks for himself, it does not cover his inflicting risks on others in which he does not share, as in this Cincinnati tragedy. This is more than any audience is entitled to for its money, and more than any police ought to permit. It is a grave question, too, whether any exhibition should be allowed which amuses people by the sight of a human being in great peril. The passion for it is still strong, we know. It is, as we see it, but a survival after all of that which kept the Roman amphitheatre going for four centuries after Christ. It is the old passion which made mediæval Christians enjoy judicial tortures and heretic-burning so much, and made hangings at Tyburn and public whippings and prize-fights so delightful to the English mob. In short, it is a brutal passion, a relic of the old animal from which we sprang, which the advance of civilization has much diminished, but which we ought, as far as law can do it, to put out of sight altogether.

Lord Dufferin broke up the elaborate programme for Arabi's trial as soon as he came to see the evidence, which undoubtedly involved the Khedive and Sultan both, and probably most of the high officers now surrounding the Khedive, in the guilt, whatever it be, of Arabi's rebellion. Arabi's assertion that the Khedive encouraged him up to a certain point in his war with England, is probably provable as well as true; that the Sultan egged him on all along, even while he was negotiating with England for the issue of a proclamation denouncing him as a rebel, has been

believed from the beginning, and has never been denied by anybody. So that the trial of Arabi for rebellion, if he had chosen to resist, would probably have been a huge farce, and would have made it almost impossible for England to maintain the Khedive's authority while allowing Arabi to be prosecuted and punished. We presume there is little doubt that he permitted if he did not order the burning of Alexandria, but there appears to be no writing to convict him of it, and the habits of all Egyptian officials are so mendacious that it would hardly do to convict him on oral testimony. Everybody concerned in the late rebellion is now telling as many lies as may be necessary to get himself out of his scrape or remove inconvenient enemies or rivals. Consequently Lord Dufferin concluded that the best way out of the mess was to drop the proceedings on condition that Arabi would plead guilty to rebellion and take a sentence of perpetual exile. This he has done, and will go abroad for life. What effect all this will have on the Egyptian mind remains to be seen. It is said that the natives have all along believed that no one would dare to punish Arabi, and if so, this will perhaps confirm the belief.

Mr. Gladstone having carried all his rules of procedure through with many amendments, Parliament was prorogued on Saturday. The indifference shown by the bulk of the Tory members, in their absence from the House during most of the debates, furnished a somewhat comic contrast to the dreadfulness of the prophecies uttered by those who did remain as to the consequences of the success of the Ministerial programme. The adoption of the rules, they said, would put an end to free speech and the independence of Parliament, but the prospect was not sufficiently alarming to make many give up their shooting. The Grand Old Man, in fact, comes out of the session, not only having had his own way, but leaving his opponents in a somewhat ridiculous attitude. He is altogether probably the most provoking phenomenon ever witnessed in English politics. He has got rid of all obstruction except what forty members acting together can offer, but there is no doubt that this may be formidable some day. Parnell cannot muster as many now, but in the next Parliament he certainly will.

The Irish Home-Rule politicians are at last forcing Mr. Trevelyan to abandon the policy of not interfering with political meetings or speeches. He has prohibited a meeting at Limerick, and has begun a prosecution against Healy and Davitt for violent language. What is expected to be gained by these prosecutions, beyond making Healy and Davitt more popular than ever, it would be hard to say. It is, in fact, impossible not to regard the step as a sort of confession that the Repression Act, though apparently working well as a specific for murder, is no remedy for political discontent. The Dublin Grand Jury has proved sufficiently brave to find bills against several more murderers, but there are signs that the special jurors for the trial of the cases are somewhat frightened. Eighty-three out of a panel of two hundred have failed to appear, and the fine of \$100 will hardly over-

come their timidity, which is probably intensified by that of their wives.

Dublin has been put under the curfew clause of the Repression Act, which authorizes the police to arrest all persons found out of doors after dark under suspicious circumstances, and carry them before a magistrate to give an account of themselves. This, we fear, will prove a source of great irritation to perfectly innocent people, and no help in catching criminals. There are so many people of all sorts and conditions abroad in a city of 300,000 inhabitants after nightfall that hundreds, if not thousands, must have a suspicious air to watchful and not very discriminating constables, and many causeless and stupid arrests will doubtless be made. The really suspicious characters, too, if known, can be arrested just as readily, if found in the streets at night, without the curfew proclamation as with it. If not known, the curfew will afford no assistance in recognizing them. Doubtless it has been resorted to rather in the hope of producing some effect on the imagination of the criminal population. What to do is, doubtless, hard to know. There seems to be collected in Dublin a body of assassins of a peculiarly desperate or Nihilist type, who have undertaken to intimidate the courts and juries, and with the juries will undoubtedly succeed, and may drive the Government back on the power given by the Act to try by the court alone. But the judges, who condemn sitting alone, will, unless the conspirators can be daunted in some manner as yet undiscovered, have as uneasy a life as the Russian officials in St. Petersburg.

Herr von Benningsen's remark in the German Reichstag that Germany will have to fight again for the possession of Alsace and Lorraine, owing to the "increasing ferment" in France, resembles very much the assertion that a war between Austria and Russia was imminent, which assertion was reported by cable as having been made by a member of the Hungarian Delegation during the discussion of the military budget of the Austrian Empire. There was, of course, much high talk about revenge in France after the war of 1870-71, but there is much less of it now than there has been heretofore, and at no time was there much more of it than there had been of "revenge for Waterloo" between 1815 and 1830. France, although much richer and stronger, is in some of the most essential respects not much better prepared to take that revenge now than she was then. Not only is her debt enormous, and her finances, owing to slovenly management, in a very disordered condition, but her Army, in spite of the large sums that have been spent upon it, is in a very unsatisfactory state as to discipline, organization, and general efficiency. The cry of revenge is used occasionally by politicians because it has an heroic sound, and is apt to draw some cheap applause from popular meetings in the capital. But how little warlike spirit there is at present in the French people has been abundantly demonstrated by the action of the Government, the debates in the Chambers, and the attitude of the public during the recent Egyptian complications.

## SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, November 29, to TUESDAY, December 5, 1882, inclusive.]

## DOMESTIC.

THE Forty-seventh Congress assembled for its final session on Monday, but little business was transacted beyond the reading of the President's message, and both houses adjourned early in honor of members who have died since the close of the last session.

The President's message, which was sent to Congress on Monday, announces that our relations with foreign governments are entirely friendly. The claim of the United States to the supervision and control of any inter-oceanic canal across the Isthmus of Panama has continued to be the subject of conference. The agreements reached at the International Convention held at Paris in 1880, in regard to the protection of trade-marks, patented articles, and the rights of manufacturing firms and corporations are being formulated into treaties. The differences between Spain and the United States in regard to the effect of a judgment and certificate of naturalization are in process of adjustment. The immigration of paupers and criminals from certain of the Swiss Cantons has substantially ceased, and is no longer sanctioned by the authorities. Other mooted questions between the United States and foreign Powers, with the exception of the onerous fines which Spain and her colonies have placed upon vessels of the United States for trivial technical offences against local regulations, the large fees demanded by Spanish Consuls in the American ports, and the question of the jurisdictional rights of the United States in Turkey, have either been satisfactorily settled, or else are in process of settlement. Diplomatic relations have been established with the new kingdom of Servia; a mission to Siam has been created, and the mission to Greece restored. The reorganization of the diplomatic and consular service on a salaried basis, leaving fees to inure to the benefit of the Treasury, is recommended. In regard to domestic affairs, the President recommends the reduction of the large surplus in the Treasury by the abrogation of internal taxes, save those on distilled spirits, which abrogation could be accompanied by a simplification of the machinery of collection which would save \$2,500,000 in salaries, and retire from 1,500 to 2,000 officials from service. In order to defeat the practice of grouping in a single bill appropriations for a great number and variety of objects, all of which must stand or fall together, the adoption of a constitutional amendment such as now exists in several of the States, providing that the Executive may veto any item or items of an appropriation bill without disapproving the bill as a whole, is suggested. The President favors a revision of the tariff, so as to equalize the burdens among all classes and occupations. The strengthening of our sea-coast defences and armament is recommended, and the adoption by Congress of some measure for reviving American shipping and restoring the American flag in the ocean carrying-trade is strongly advised. The President withholds his concurrence from the Postmaster-General's argument in favor of a postal-telegraph system, but recommends the reduction of domestic letter postage from three to two cents. In regard to Indian affairs the President reaffirms his recommendations of last year. The message closes with a strong appeal to Congress to take some decided measures for a reform in the method of appointment to office in the civil service. The President approves of the bill at present pending before the Senate, and promises his assent to this or any other bill embodying like provisions. He also declares his approval of such legislation as may be found necessary for supplementing the existing provisions of the law in relation to political assessments, and says that a bill which will effectually suppress such assessments will meet with his cordial approval.

In short, in regard to all matters connected with civil-service reform the President's message is most earnest and explicit. It has been received with almost unanimous expressions of approval.

The annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1882, shows that the total ordinary receipts amounted to \$403,525,250 28, while the total expenditures were \$257,981,439 57, leaving a surplus revenue of \$145,543,810 71 applicable to the payment of the debt. The total revenues for the current fiscal year and the year following are estimated at \$415,000,000 each, and the expenditures at \$295,000,000 each, leaving a surplus of \$120,000,000 for each year. The Secretary recommends the repeal of the provision requiring the coining of a fixed amount of silver dollars each month, and the repeal of the law authorizing the issue of silver certificates, and advises that the silver certificates in circulation be withdrawn as speedily as possible, else the accumulation of silver will soon exceed the capacity of the Department for storing it. In regard to the large surplus annual revenue and the rapid extinguishment of the public debt, the Secretary favors legislation authorizing the Department to apply its surplus to buying in the long bonds rather than to paying off the short bonds, and he suggests that the fifty million dollars held as a fund for the redemption of the national-bank notes be treated as public moneys and deposited in the banks which are public depositories. In these ways he thinks that the enormous accumulation of money in the Treasury, and the great resulting embarrassment of trade, may be prevented. The Secretary recommends a careful revision of the tariff with a view to substantial reductions, particularly upon sugar, wool, iron, steel, silk goods, coarse cottons, and raw materials generally.

The Secretary of the Navy, in his report, says that the available cruising vessels of the Navy are sufficient for giving practice to officers and men, and for displaying the flag abroad, but for nothing else, and that they should be replaced by modern iron and steel cruisers. The guns of the Navy also are antiquated, and of little use. There is only one modern high-powered gun among them, and only the eighty-seven converted guns are worth retaining. He recommends the transfer of the administration of the Light-house, Coast Survey, Life-saving, and Revenue Marine services from the Treasury to the Navy Department. The condition of the commercial marine, its connection with the Navy, and their mutual dependence are set forth, and the establishment of a Bureau of Mercantile Marine is urged. To revive American shipping, Secretary Chandler recommends the removal of burdens, such as inordinate fees and charges, and protection from foreign competition by paying a bounty for construction and a subsidy for carrying, in the form of compensation for mail service.

The Secretary of War, in his report, states the expenditures of the Department for the fiscal year to have been \$45,349,319, while the estimated expenses for the next fiscal year will amount to about \$6,500,000 less than this amount. The report says that the General of the Army urges strongly that the limit of the enlisted strength of the Army be fixed at 30,000 instead of 25,000 men, and the Secretary concurs in the recommendation. Three thousand seven hundred and twenty-one soldiers deserted during the year, which is more than half the number of enlistments. Some remedy, the report says, must be found for this trouble, as it is not only very expensive, but also very hurtful to the *morale* of the Army. The General believes that a partial remedy may be found by increasing the pay to what it was in 1865.

The report of the Postmaster-General shows an excess of income over expenditure for the past year of \$1,394,388 82, and an estimated excess for next year of \$3,929,345 02.

The Tariff Commission submitted its report to Congress on Monday. The report recommends changes in the tariff laws which, if made, will cause a substantial reduction in rates averaging from 20 to 25 per cent. The elimination of compound duties, except in the schedule of woollens, is advised. The report is signed by all the Commissioners now living, with certain reservations on the part of some of the members.

The Republican members of the Senate held a caucus immediately after the adjournment of the Senate on Monday, and decided to continue the committees as at present constituted. The Caucus Committee was instructed to confer with the Democratic caucus for the purpose of filling the committee vacancies caused by the death of Senator Hill, and also to decide upon a permanent chairman for the Committee on Pensions made vacant by the withdrawal of Secretary Teller from the Senate.

The Ways and Means Committee on Tuesday reported to the House a bill for the abolition of taxes on tobacco in all its forms. The receipts from the taxes which this bill proposes to abolish were, for the last fiscal year, nearly one-third of the receipts from all internal taxes.

The public debt statement for the month of November shows the net reduction of the debt for the month to have been \$5,534,142, which is a little more than one-third of the average monthly reduction for the first four months of the fiscal year.

A decision was rendered by the United States Supreme Court, on Monday, in the tax-sale case of the United States against George W. P. C. Lee, which involves the title to a tract of land in Alexandria County, Virginia, known as the Arlington estate. The judgment of the court below in favor of the Lee heirs was confirmed. It is stated that the United States will now endeavor to acquire a valid title to the Arlington estate, either by direct purchase from the Lee heirs or by instituting condemnation proceedings.

Ex-Senator Dorsey on Saturday furnished a statement in his own behalf in regard to the Star-route frauds. The statement is long, and contains much abuse of the persons who have been engaged in the prosecution of the frauds, but its substance is as follows: Dorsey says that in a letter to General Garfield in December, 1880, he told him all about his connection with the Star-route contracts; that in March, 1881, he requested President Garfield to appoint a commission of Democrats to investigate the charges that had been made against him, and the President referred him to Postmaster-General James, who for some time avoided meeting him, but finally did meet him in company with Attorney-General MacVeagh, who declined to allow any investigation, saying that there was no evidence on record of any wrongdoing on the part of Dorsey, and that there was, therefore, nothing to investigate; that finally, under promise that it was to be used and regarded as confidential, he (Dorsey) wrote out a full history of his connection with the Star-route contracts, but that in spite of their promises Messrs. James and MacVeagh did make use of this confidential statement, and within twenty-four hours had detectives employed working up the facts contained therein. For this alleged "treachery" Dorsey roundly abuses Messrs. MacVeagh and James. He then goes on to state at length his version of his connection with the Star-route contracts, from which it appears that he is a perfectly innocent and much maligned man. In regard to the removal of Marshal Henry and Postmasters Ainger and Parker, Dorsey says that it was a trick to enable the Government to get Marshal Henry out of the way, and thus to secure the selection of a packed jury for the forthcoming trials.

Mr. Clayton McMichael, editor of the Philadelphia *North American*, has been appointed to, and has accepted, the post of Marshal of

the District of Columbia, made vacant by the removal of Charles E. Henry.

The Garfield Monument Fair at Washington was closed on Saturday night, after eight days, which were moderately successful. It is estimated that there will be a net profit of a few thousand dollars. The fund before the Fair amounted to \$16,192.

On Thursday the Grand Jury at New Orleans presented two indictments for forgery against thirteen of the Democratic election officers said to be guilty of the election frauds.

#### FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Thursday, Mr. Gladstone refused to grant Mr. Parnell's request for facilities to discuss the administration of the Land Act. Mr. Trevelyan stated that the recent inflammatory speeches of Messrs. Davitt, Healy, and Redmond had been considered by the Government, and that if such speeches were continued, the meetings of the National League would be prohibited. Mr. Redmond's speech came within the provisions of the Prevention of Crimes Act, and prosecution would forthwith be instituted in his case. The speeches of Messrs. Davitt and Healy did not come within the act, although those made by Mr. Healy were indictable, but he advised that he be not prosecuted. If Messrs. Davitt and Healy persisted in making inflammatory speeches, application would be made to have them bound over to be of good behavior or to have them committed to prison. At the conclusion of Mr. Trevelyan's speech Mr. Healy rose, and in a defiant manner said he begged to inform the Government that he would return to Dublin on the following day. On Friday Mr. Johnston informed Mr. Parnell that he was considering under which of two statutes to prosecute Mr. Healy.

On Saturday Parliament was prorogued until February 15. The Queen, in her speech, said she continued to hold relations of amity with all foreign Powers; that notwithstanding the failure of the commercial negotiations with France to result in a treaty, yet, owing to the enlightened policy pursued by the French Government and Legislature, there has not been any general decline in the dealings between the two countries; that she took this opportunity of placing on record her gratitude to the able officers and victorious forces in Egypt; that notwithstanding a succession of unfavorable seasons, the crops have been most abundant; that the growth of the revenue has been retarded by a cause which is to be contemplated with satisfaction—namely, the diminution of the receipts of the Exchequer from duties on intoxicating liquors; that in some parts of Ireland she is compelled to anticipate distress during the coming winter; and that though she records with deep pain that "horrible crime and assassination has been rife in Dublin," still, in the social condition of the country at large there has been a marked improvement.

Messrs. Davitt and Healy have been served with summonses to appear before the Court of Queen's Bench and enter into recognizances for good behavior.

A proclamation signed by Earl Spencer, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, was issued on Saturday, prohibiting a meeting on behalf of the Irish National League, which was to have been held at Limerick on Sunday, and at which it was announced that Mr. Davitt would speak.

At the opening of the Special Commission Court at Dublin on Monday, Justice O'Brien, in his address to the Grand Jury, referring to the decrease in the number of crimes committed in Ireland, pointed out that the decrease was mainly in the matter of the sending of threatening letters. There was no decrease in the number of undetected crimes, as evidenced by the attacks upon Judge Lawson, Detective Cox, and Dennis Field. Owing to the increase in such offences, the trade of Dublin, he said, was gradually decaying, and those persons

who were able to do so were giving up their business and flying from the city as if it were infected with the plague.

The Queen opened the new Courts of Justice in the Strand on Monday. Thousands of persons assembled along the route of the procession from the Paddington Railway station to the Courts. All the Judges had previously proceeded in state from Westminster to await with the Prince and Princess of Wales the arrival of the Queen. The proceedings at the Courts consisted of the delivery of the key to the Queen by the First Commissioner of Works, and by her to the Lord Chancellor. After prayer by the Archbishop of York and the formal announcement of the opening of the Courts, the Attorney-General obtained royal leave to enter the proceedings upon the records of the court. All the diplomats, Cabinet Ministers, and other officials were present. Lord High Chancellor Selborne has been created an Earl in honor of the event.

On Wednesday Lord Granville, in introducing the Dean of Westminster to a deputation from the Longfellow Memorial Committee, said they asked the Dean's consent to allow a bust of Longfellow to be placed in Westminster Abbey as a testimonial to a graceful and tender poet. He pointed to the number and eminence of the members of the committee as scarcely paralleled for distinction in all the departments of intellectual activity. The Dean unhesitatingly consented, and, after paying a graceful tribute to Longfellow, referred touchingly to Washington Irving and to the relations between England and the United States, whose ties, he said, were as strong as links of iron.

Earl Kimberley, Secretary of State for the Colonial Department, has telegraphed to Lord Napier, Governor of Gibraltar, that the Government has decided, after careful consideration of the report in regard to the surrender of the Cuban refugees to the Spanish authorities, that the Colonial Secretary and Chief Inspector of Police at Gibraltar cannot be permitted to retain their offices. In regard to the case of the acting police magistrate who ordered the expulsion of the refugees from the British lines, Lord Kimberley says that, although he must be severely censured for his conduct in the affair, the Government does not feel compelled to remove him from the office of Captain of the Port.

On Sunday it was announced at Cairo that the Prosecution Committee had decided to abandon all the charges against Arabi Pasha except that of armed rebellion. At 9 o'clock, Arabi was arraigned, Rauf Pasha, ex-Governor of Sudan, presiding. Sir Charles Wilson watched the case on behalf of Great Britain, but no counsel were present for the Egyptian Government. The President read the charges and asked the prisoner whether he would plead guilty. Mr. Broadley thereupon rose and stated that the prisoner had voluntarily, and in accordance with the advice of his counsel, pleaded guilty. The proceedings only occupied five minutes. On the reassembling of the court in the afternoon, the President sentenced Arabi to death. The Kbedive subsequently commuted the sentence to exile for life, and the decree says that if he re-enters Egypt or its dependencies, he will be amenable to the sentence of death. The counsel for the defence stipulated that the other chief prisoners should participate in the compromise effected in the case of Arabi. It is believed that Arabi will retire to some part of the British dominions. His demeanor before the court is reported to have been dignified.

Nubar Pasha, who was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Egyptian Army, arrived in Cairo on Friday, and was officially informed that England declines to recognize or sanction his appointment as Commander-in-Chief of the Army. The London *Daily News* said on Friday that it believed the Government would send a British general to

Egypt to take command of the forces levied by Baker Pasha, and that as Baker does not hold a commission in the British Army, he is not competent to assume command over British officers. In the House of Commons, on the same day, Sir Charles Dilke stated that the Egyptian Government had applied to England for officers for the Egyptian Army, and that negotiations were proceeding upon the subject.

A despatch from Constantinople says that the Sultan did not attend the Mosque on Friday, and that it has since become known that an attempt to assassinate him was contemplated. The Sultan is said to be completely terror-stricken, and scarcely dares show himself outside of the harem.

The Seine, Rhone, and Garonne Rivers, in France, have risen greatly, and many houses have been deserted for fear of disaster. The country between Châlons-sur-Marne and Épernay has been inundated. A despatch from Vienna says that the River Theiss and its affluents have overflowed their banks, and that the Marmaros district is inundated. In the Prussian Diet on Friday Herr von Puttkamer stated that the damage caused by the overflow of the Rhine could not be repaired without drawing upon the resources of the State. He has asked the Emperor to sanction a grant of 500,000 marks to relieve the distress in the flooded districts, and the Diet will be asked for funds as soon as the amount required has been ascertained.

A despatch from Berlin, on Friday, announced that the Reichstag had rejected, by a vote of 153 to 119, the motion to allow as optional the use of French in the debates in the Provincial Committee of Alsace-Lorraine. During the discussion of the motion, one of the members, in opposing it, said that the use of the French language was unnecessary, as eighty per cent. of the population were Germans, and the other twenty per cent. could speak both languages. Another member said there would be, in any case, another struggle for the possession of Alsace-Lorraine whenever the increasing ferment in France came to a head.

A despatch to the London *Times* from Berlin states that the imperial budget for 1883-1884 estimates the total revenue and expenditure at 530,000,000 marks each, and the budget for 1884-1885 estimates them at 531,500,000 marks each, there being entered in these annual accounts loans of 28,500,000 and 19,400,000 marks respectively for extraordinary expenses.

An ordinance was presented in the Berlin Bundesrat on Thursday forbidding the importation of American pigs, pork, bacon, and sausages of all kinds.

The Spanish Cortes reassembled on Monday. No speech was delivered from the throne. Señor Herrera, the Ministerial candidate, was elected President of the Chamber of Deputies, receiving 233 votes to 82 for the candidate of the Opposition.

A despatch from Rome says that the Italian Government, acting in accordance with the opinion of the Venetian Tribunal and the Council of State, will refuse to surrender to Austria two natives of Trieste whose extradition has been demanded on the charge that they were connected with the manufacture of bombs to be used for treasonable purposes in Austria.

On Tuesday, Dr. Dunajewski, the Austrian Minister of Finance, submitted to the Reichsrath the budget for 1883, showing a deficit of 31,600,000 florins. He said the condition of the treasury was exceedingly favorable, and that the Government would be able to pay off uncovered credits to the amount of 14,200,000 florins. After deducting the outlay for new railways and the Bosnian expenses, there will be no administrative deficit. It is probable that a considerable portion of the deficit for 1883 can be met by the cash in hand from the current year.

## THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

CONSIDERING how very little attention Congress, as a rule, pays to the recommendations of the President's message, the interest with which it is received at the opening of each session must be ascribed to a recognition of the fact that it is a sort of general review of the political situation, produced by an exceptionally well-informed politician. The information which it contains about the Government business, except foreign affairs, is to be found in the department reports; besides this the President has generally nothing to offer except some advice which, as we have said, Congress rarely heeds. But this advice is apt to be the result of more or less careful observation of the drift of public opinion, and really urges things which the people at least are supposed to call for. It is not always easy, however, for the shrewdest observer to say in the first week of December in any given year what the people are calling for. Elections sometimes give a rather uncertain sound; and when they do, the message is apt to take on the form of an essay.

But this year the people have really left the Chief Magistrate in no doubt about their meaning. It is not permissible to a person of even ordinary intelligence to hesitate for one moment in construing the purport of the popular vote in this State, in Pennsylvania, and in Massachusetts, and we must do President Arthur the justice to say that he does not hesitate in the least. He takes the reform bull by the horns in the most manful fashion. Henry the Fourth, of France, did not go to mass more cheerfully in order to get the crown than Mr. Arthur urges civil-service reform just as the reformers ask for it. This time there is no humming or hawing, no ifs or buts, no doubts about this particular measure, or about the English system, or about the possibility of meeting the evils complained of by legislation; no recommendation of the general growth of the community in virtue as the best means of filling the offices with good men. This time he asks to have the Executive relieved by legislation of the burden of appointing the swarm of civil servants which the Government now needs, and he boldly declares that the Pendleton bill now before the Senate is good enough for him. He even asks for a bill to prohibit assessments on officeholders, and acknowledges that, under the present régime, even a Presidential order guaranteeing the officers against evil consequences in case they refuse to contribute, is not sufficient to remove their apprehension. He virtually admits, in fact, that Hubbell's money was collected under duress. This acknowledgment is the more creditable because the facts on which it is based were as patent last July as they are to-day; because Hubbell was allowed during four months to practise intimidation which the President could have stopped in an hour; and because the arbitrary removals made in the departments, on Mahone's demand, were just what Hubbell needed to give to the assurance in his circulars that his collections were not "viewed with disfavor in any official quarter," the terrible significance which most of the unfortunate clerks doubtless attached to it.

There is one portion of the message which is distinctly and even formally apologetic, and which we think the President might have spared himself the trouble of producing—that, namely, in which he shows that, although not a professed civil-service reformer, he made fewer removals in proportion to appointments than Presidents Hayes and Garfield. His figures in support of this theory are not satisfactory, because he is hardly in a position to compare himself with his predecessor, inasmuch as he is not the head of a new Administration, and did not succeed to his office until most of the changes which on any view, civil-service or spoils, are permitted to a new Administration, had been made. Moreover, in its present temper, the public cares very little about the question which politician has broken most of his pledges, or done most to disappoint the popular expectation. What it desires to know of every politician is, whether he means to keep on breaking his pledges, or whether he is going to turn over a new leaf. The only persons who can feel much interest in the comparison which President Arthur makes of himself as a civil-service reformer with President Garfield, are, in fact, a somewhat mysterious body called the "Garfield Republicans," whose main source of dissatisfaction with the present Administration seems to be, as well as we can make out, not that it has not done more for civil-service reform, but that it has kept all the spoils for "one wing of the party."

The other recommendations of the President are all in the line of those he made last year, before his mind had been cleared on the civil-service reform question. On all questions of finance and taxation his views are sound and enlightened. He believes in getting rid of our debauching surpluses by reducing taxation, in clearing away the silver cloud which now hangs over our currency by stopping the silver coinage, and in reducing the letter postage. He is fortunate, too, in the possession of a faculty of clear, forcible, and persuasive statement such as but few of his predecessors could boast; and the present message, like all his state papers, is on every topic he touches unusually easy and even pleasant reading.

## THE RATIONALE OF SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

WE print in another column a letter on Southern homicide from a gentleman who has a conspicuous right to speak for the South, and has held a high position in the public service. He is, therefore, entitled to a hearing, and we wish most sincerely that his reasons for thinking our criticisms have been "too severe" had more force in them. He says the first question to be settled in judging the South on the homicidal matter is, "What is civilization?" but he carefully refrains from settling this question. All the contribution he makes to the settlement of it is the assertion that "a healthy and fruitful civilization has several elements in it besides 'the sacredness of human life.'" This is true. But what healthy or fruitful civilization does he know of in which life is not held sacred against lawless violence? In all the highly civilized countries of to-day, the protection of life against lawless violence is the *first* concern of the

community. Other things have to be added to this, to make high civilization; but this is essential. In fact, the sacredness of human life as against assassins is to a nation very much what clothing is to a gentleman. Clothing does not make a gentleman, but a naked gentleman is a contradiction in terms. So also is "a highly civilized community in which people murder each other with impunity when they quarrel."

Our correspondent says that, "leaving out homicides caused by political or race quarrels," "homicide is not much more frequent at the South than at the North, Mr. Redfield to the contrary notwithstanding." But why "to the contrary notwithstanding"? Mr. Redfield has collected the statistics from the County Clerks' offices, and the newspaper reports, collated and analyzed them, and then published them, and his book has for four years been challenging examination. He shows that homicides are eight or ten times more numerous at the South than at the North, and the vast majority are neither race nor political. To oppose to this the simple contradiction of somebody who has never examined the matter at all, but does not like the figures, is really almost childish.

To the question, which is a most important one, "Why is it that at the South homicides are more frequent among supposed-to-be respectable people than at the North?" our correspondent answers that the Southerners are either descended from the Cavaliers, or are influenced by the manners of the Cavaliers, who were "gentlemen of the rapier-and-pistol school," very ready to resent by fighting "the least imputation on personal honor or truthfulness"; while the people of the North are either descended from the Puritans, or are influenced by the Puritan horror of "personal combat and bloodshed." The theory that any but a very small number of Cavaliers ever settled in Virginia is now thoroughly exploded; but we let it pass as a rough explanation of the difference between the Northern and Southern communities in the colonial days, and we will further grant that slavery helped to maintain what we may, without offence, call the greater ferocity of Southern manners. But there is hardly anything in common between the typical Southern business or social homicide and the Cavalier's duel. In street fights, in which the Southern homicide is generally committed, there is no attempt to secure equality of arms or conditions. The quarrel is submitted to nobody's judgment. Each tries to steal the first shot by taking his adversary unawares; if successful, he fires into his body after he falls. In nine cases out of ten the revolting scene is enacted in the public street, at imminent risk to the passers-by.

The number of Cavaliers who settled in the South was exceedingly small; but, granting that it was as large as any Southerner has ever supposed, it will be admitted that the great bulk of the Cavaliers stayed in England, where they and their descendants have until our day enjoyed a social and political influence such as no class has probably ever exercised in any country—*influence*, we say, not power simply. They have long both ruled the state and set the fashion in manners. How does it happen, then, we inquire, that in England the street

fight with deadly weapons between persons in any decent social position is unknown; that even duelling is extinct; that the English country gentleman is one of the most peaceable, kindly, honorable, law-abiding men in the world; that, far from murdering his neighbors, or threatening his creditors or business rivals with shotguns, he uses the shotgun for sporting purposes only, and is always the first man in the county to hunt down a murderer, and see that he is fairly tried and decently hanged? Who is the English "Cavalier," now at large and received in society, who has killed his man, either in single combat or a street brawl, or helped to shield a criminal from justice?

The answer to these questions is easy. The explanation of the difference for social purposes between Southern cavalierism and English cavalierism—the latter being undoubtedly the more genuine article of the two—is that the Southern variety has lagged behind in civilization, and even degenerated. Instead of becoming more lawful with the advance of material civilization, it has become more lawless, and has lowered its standards so as to clothe the drunken swashbuckler and bully of every small town with "the grand old name of gentleman." Worse than all, defence of Southern homicide, like that of our correspondent, on the plea of cavalierism, is, in our opinion, so debauching to Southern youth that we really think that, without meaning to be disrespectful to "Y.", it deserves to be put in the category of "pernicious literature." The Southern boy who, when he begins to ponder the ethical problems of his daily life, hears from his elders that it is cavalierish to be fierce-tempered, and quick with his weapons, and ready to wash out slights and insults and settle quarrels in blood, cannot but be prepared to shed blood in a way unknown in highly civilized countries. Two clerks in a hardware store at Charlottesville, Va., were skylarking the other day, and one lost his temper, and demanded "satisfaction" of the other, and they actually fought with butcher-knives procured from the stock in the store until one was ripped open. There can hardly be a doubt that this poor wretch would never have dreamed that he needed to stab or rip up somebody by way of "satisfaction" if he had not been listening from his childhood to all this wonderful stuff about the cavalierish origin of Southern shooting and cutting.

We grant our correspondent that "life is a means, an opportunity to an end," and that that end is "the happiness of our neighbors . . . as well as that of the owner of a particular life." What we object to is allowing every man to decide that somebody else's life is necessary to his happiness, and to take it accordingly. We accept the doctrine, but demand that the carrying of it into practice be left to judges and juries. Under any other system it produces New Mexico, where nearly everybody is trying to make some other man's life a means of promoting his own welfare. We acknowledge, too, that the South did not produce Professor Webster, or the Nathan murderer, or the professional boy-killer, or the daughter-whipper, or the religious fanatic. The North produced them, but what did the North do with them?

Where are they? Is Webster going about the streets threatening to kill more creditors? Is the boy-killer looking up more little boys to kill? Is the daughter-whipper a favorite in society, and longing for more daughters to whip to death? Are they not in the grave, the penitentiary, or the lunatic asylum, as the consequence of their crimes? All we ask of the South is to deal with its assassins in the manner in which the North deals with the wretches produced by its social condition. In other words, let it clear its streets of everybody who has wilfully killed, or tried to kill, or threatens to kill a human being—except the Sheriff.

#### MORE OF MR. BLAINE ON THE Isthmus CANAL.

A very curious interview with Mr. James G. Blaine about the Nicaragua Canal, was reported by the *Washington Post* on Monday. In it he expressed the sincere hope that Congress would not make a grant for its construction, on the ground that after it was made we should have no control over the Canal whatever, and have engaged, by the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty with England, "not to assume any control over it." "But did you not," said the simple-minded reporter, "yourself, as Secretary of State, take the ground that the (Clayton-Bulwer) Treaty was no longer operative?" "Oh, not at all, not at all," exclaimed the Retired Statesman, "with emphasis"; "I took the ground that the lapse of time and the great change in our continental relations justified our Government in asking several modifications in the treaty which I specified." The Retired Statesman has taken so many grounds about so many things in his busy career that it is not surprising that he should forget "with emphasis" what ground he took about the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty; but the fact is, that in his despatch of June 24, 1881, about this Canal matter, he ignored the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty altogether, and expressed himself as follows, besides much more of the same sort:

"During any war to which the United States of America or the United States of Colombia might be a party, the passage of armed vessels of hostile nations through the Canal at Panama would be no more admissible than would be the passage of the armed forces of a hostile nation over the railway lines joining the Atlantic and Pacific shores of the United States of Colombia. And the United States of America will insist upon her right to take all needful precautions against the possibility of the isthmus transit being in any event used offensively against her interests upon the land or upon the sea."

In other words, Mr. Blaine here pledged the United States to do the very thing which he now says the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty prevents her from doing.

Probably the most charitable construction to put on this performance is that he forgot all about the treaty when he was writing that terrible circular to the European Powers in June, for when Lord Granville reminded him of it, in a cutting way, he did take it up and discuss it in the following November, and ask for modifications in it, pouring over the subject a flood of the lurid campaign rhetoric which has made his state papers so famous over the entire earth. It would seem from this interview, however, as if he were now conscious that Lord Granville had got the better of him,

and that there is nothing left but to shake his head over the Canal prospects of a country which has discarded himself and his policy.

There is one other little matter in the interview which we trust he will explain early in the coming spring. Said the simple-minded reporter:

"Do you think Great Britain will secure the recognition of her right of control of the Suez Canal from the other great Powers by treaty?"

"No, of course not," said Mr. Blaine. "But why should Great Britain ask it? Her navy absolutely controls the Canal at both ends, and no European Power can place an army there to dispute the mastery of the ironclads. Why, then, should Great Britain ask a treaty to give her what she already has? But England's control of the Suez Canal is not more absolute than the same Power's control of the Nicaragua Canal would be if built under the provisions of the Kasson bill. We are bound by treaties both with England and Nicaragua not to fortify the Canal, and so of course that leaves the control of the British Navy just as absolute as at Suez."

"But after all," queried the reporter, "does it make much difference who controls the Canal so that we get the commercial advantage of it?"

"If that question could be authoritatively addressed to Great Britain, you would perhaps get an answer that would satisfy you. In the time of peace it would make little difference, with equal and impartial tolls, but if war should unhappily come, the nation controlling the Canal would have a vast advantage. With the control of the Canal in our hands a vessel of war lying in the Gulf of Mexico is just as available for the defence of San Francisco as for the defence of New York. With the control of the Canal in British hands an English man-of-war in the Gulf is just as available for attacking San Francisco as New York. The British Government understands the difference if we do not."

Now, what needs explanation here is, how fortifying the Canal will make it a convenient highway to San Francisco, if Great Britain controls the sea at both ends of it in the manner described. The American man-of-war will be safe in the Canal if fortified as aforesaid, but the Canal is not a harbor of refuge. It is only useful to those who can leave it; and suppose an American man-of-war were to leave it in order to get up to San Francisco, and the British iron-clad fleet was lying outside, and its Admiral knew that Mr. Blaine was not on board and attacked the American ship on the high seas, in what manner would the fortifications of the Canal help that man-of-war out of her scrape? This may seem to a really great mind a small problem, but, small as it appears, its solution, Mr. Blaine will find, affords materials for the highest mental capacity to work on.

#### FRENCH ANARCHISTS.

ACCORDING to some of our esteemed contemporaries, republican institutions in France are rapidly going to pieces, and the French people are anxiously looking about for somebody to govern them as a monarch. We do not believe things have as yet come to such a pass in France. But it cannot be denied that the recent demonstrations of activity on the part of the revolutionary element have made the popular mind there more restless than it has been for many years. There is no agitation of public questions calculated to work upon the passions of large multitudes. There seems to be no widespread desire for a fundamental change. But what might be called the subterranean element in politics, the plotters for revolution under any circumstances, are evidently at work stirring up local disturbances and outbreaks, which, as they appear one after

another, shake the popular sense of security in a very disconcerting way.

The revolutionist for the sake of revolution is a peculiarly French product. Under the monarchy he conspired against the King, and called himself a Republican. Under the Republic he conspires against whatever government may exist at the time, and calls himself an Anarchist. It is an error to think that Anarchism and Socialism are one and the same thing. The doctrinaire Socialist wants to regulate everything—government, labor, the daily life of society—by the power of the state. The state is to exercise an all-powerful government in the paternal sense. The theoretical Anarchist wants to strip the state of its power and to let everybody do pretty much as he pleases. But it would also be a mistake to suppose that the common run of Socialists and Anarchists are in all respects clearly conscious of this difference in their objects. The fact is that it would be equally difficult for the Socialist and the Anarchist to give a clear account of the social and political condition he is aiming at. The Socialist has the advantage of at least trying to imagine something like a new social order, however fantastic it may be, while the Anarchist simply wants to destroy the government, as such, without giving himself the trouble to imagine any social and political organization that is to follow. Both are agreed as to two things: that the "bourgeois"—that is, the citizen who has got something, be it much or little, and who wears decent clothes, and who is not obliged to earn his living from day to day by working with his hands—is a nuisance, and that a Government controlled by the bourgeois must be overthrown. The Socialist wants to abolish him, because he imagines the bourgeois to stand in the way of the establishment of the "Republic of Labor"; and the Anarchist wants to abolish the bourgeois because, although he may be a Liberal, and even a Democrat, he still has some conservative streak in him, and because he is generally the ruling class "fattening on the sweat of the people."

If the Anarchist has any fixed and tangible programme, it is that revolution, change by force, should be the permanent state of society, and that, therefore, whenever a government is established, a movement must at once be set on foot to overthrow it. He is a revolutionist for the sake of revolution. This would seem to presuppose either a desire to take advantage of social disorder for the sake of plunder, or a deranged state of mind. But it is a noteworthy fact that most of the leaders of the professional revolutionists—among them men of considerable ability—were, as to the acquisition of property, not of a rapacious disposition at all. On the contrary, they were self-denying in the highest degree—content to live in poverty and want, despising domestic comforts, and apparently satisfied to go from one prison into another as martyrs for their cause, using their intervals of freedom in getting up revolutionary uprisings which uniformly came to nothing. Thus one of their principal heroes, Blanqui, who died not long ago as an old man, had spent the larger part of his life within prison walls, and always contrived to get there again as often as

he was set free. There is more to be said in favor of the other theory. There is a strong histrionic propensity in the make-up of the French mind. A Frenchman likes to pose, if possible, after a model that has struck his fancy. Thus the young popular leaders of the first French Revolution were fond of regarding themselves as Brutuses, Cassiuses, Gracchuses, and the like; and thus the professional revolutionist of the present century wants to be a St.-Just, or a Robespierre, or a Danton, or a Babeuf. The methods of the first French Revolution, and especially of the Reign of Terror, are also gospel to him, and so he will insist that there will be no chance for true liberty in France until at least half a million heads are cut off.

Of late this element has found means to make itself very uncomfortable, even in quiet times, by the use of dynamite, which has rendered the old-fashioned "émeute" unnecessary. A dynamite cartridge thrown into a theatre, or a dry-goods shop, or a church, will cause as much consternation and alarm as an ordinary street fight behind barricades used to do. The danger is not that the Anarchists will succeed in organizing a great movement, capable of overthrowing the existing order of society and establishing a government of Anarchists in its place. In enterprises of such magnitude they always fail even under favorable circumstances—the Commune in 1871 showed the utmost limits of their capacity in that respect. But they may contemplate, by repeated strokes of mischief, such as recently happened at Montceau and Lyons, continually annoying and disquieting and exasperating people who want to live securely and peaceably, and thus bringing on a confusion favorable to their schemes. The only thing they could possibly accomplish would be gradually to produce a disposition in the popular mind to look once more for some strong hand to "save society." That the result would be just the reverse of what the Anarchists are aiming at is a matter of course. This point, however, seems not to have been reached as yet.

#### ENGLISH DIFFICULTIES IN EGYPT.

LONDON, November 18, 1882.

SINCE the victory of Tel-el-Kebir and occupation of Cairo in the middle of September last, nothing has happened to affect in any legal, formal, or permanent way the relations either of England or of any other of the European Powers with Egypt. Very little, indeed, has happened at all in that quarter. The British troops have been coming home in detachments until now only twelve thousand remain, and it is announced that in the meantime that number will be kept there to maintain (till more durable arrangements can be made) the authority of the Khedive and good order in the country. The self-styled Mahdi, a Mohammedan fanatic or impostor, who has appeared in the Sudan and collected a large, though very disorderly, force, has seriously disturbed, if he has not destroyed, Egyptian power in the negro-peopled countries to the south of Nubia. He has several times been reported to be moving down the Nile, and fears have been expressed lest he should attack Egypt itself; but at present he remains no more than a cloud hanging on the horizon.

In Lower Egypt the principal matter has been

the trial of Arabi Pasha and his accomplices, an affair which has given the English Government a great deal of trouble, because while it is theoretically and technically in the hands of the Egyptian authorities, against whom these leaders revolted, it substantially involves the responsibility of England. It was to an English officer that Arabi surrendered, and it is England who is practically supreme in Egypt now; so that whatever punishments may be inflicted upon the rebels will seem to be inflicted by or under the sanction of England. The judicial methods of the East, even more than its military codes, are of course unlike Western ones, and in many ways repugnant to Western ideas. If England permits Arabi to be tried and found guilty in a manner or upon evidence which Western courts would not follow or admit, she will be thought guilty of injustice, and will be blamed not only by Europe, but by those who at home have taken the supposed head of the so-called National Egyptian party under their protection. If, on the other hand, she interferes with the trial, forbidding this and directing that, she will seem to be superseding those native authorities which it has been her object to strengthen, and which she has striven to represent as being still the legitimate Government of the country. Every interference is an assumption of responsibility, and also involves a weakening of the influence and credit of the Khedive and his ministers. The Tory and Irish Oppositions in the House of Commons have perceived this difficulty, and have not been slow to take advantage of it. In particular, the Tory skirmishers, though six months ago they were constantly urging the Government to act with more promptness and boldness in Egypt, and though they still blame the hesitation which allowed Arabi to strengthen himself, now exhibit a good deal of sympathy for him. They worry the Foreign Office by incessant questions intended either to entrap them into admitting that the trial is in fact being conducted under their supervision, or else to make it appear that they have dishonorably handed over their prisoner to his bitterest foes, to be dealt with according to Oriental ideas—that is to say, with brutality and injustice.

Meanwhile, the trial proceeds, as might be expected, very slowly. Delay is in the prisoner's favor. We have almost as great an aversion as you have to shedding blood, except in the open field. Although Arabi is being tried for a military mutiny or revolt against the person to whom he owed allegiance, his revolt was so like legitimate war, and he has himself obtained so much of the character of a political leader, that it will be found very hard to deal with him according to strict military law. Those of his accomplices who can be shown to have borne a direct and active part in the burning of Alexandria or in the slaughter of Europeans may, perhaps, be put to death; but it is very unlikely that a similar fate will befall him. Eminence, which in former times endangered a leader's life, now protects it. Although, as I have just said, Arabi's case is technically quite different from that of Abd-el-Kader or Shamyl, the two most famous Mohammedan heroes who have in this century been captured by European antagonists—because they were independent chieftains, while he is an adventurer heading a military rising against his sovereign—still, people involuntarily put him in the same category, and think that it would be as harsh to execute him as it would have been to execute Napoleon after Waterloo.

He has, besides, another point in his favor. Our information regarding it is still incomplete, but its relevance is obvious. There can be little doubt that his action was all along, even in its earlier stages before the crisis of April last, encouraged, and to some extent prompted, by the

Sultan. Although the Egyptian National party was, in its origin, directed not against Europeans so much as against Turks and Circassians—there being an old and bitter jealousy between the Arabic and the Turkish-speaking races in the Eastern world—the Sultan and his advisers seem to have recognized the value which a national Mohammedan movement would have as against the influence of Christian Powers. This feeling became stronger after the French conquest—for such one may call it—of Tunis, in the autumn of 1881. The Sultan feared that Africa would be lost to him, withdrawn from the Khalifal authority which he seeks to extend, and he resolved to regain in Egypt what he had lost in Tunis. He would, accordingly, seem to have stirred up the fanaticism both of Arabi and of the ecclesiastical party in Egypt, putting forward his own rights and claims as superior to those of the Khedive, and exhorting the faithful of Egypt to remember their allegiance to the head of their religion and maintain their resistance to the aggressions of infidel foreigners. Numerous letters from the confidants of the Sultan have, it is said, been found among Arabi's papers, approving the latter's conduct and assuring him that he was fighting the battle of Islam and of the Khalif. These letters are to be used at the trial in defence of Arabi, as evidence that he acted throughout under instructions—secret, but not on that account the less effective—from Constantinople. Supposing them authentic, they are important in two ways: they extenuate Arabi's offence in a moral point of view, because they show that he was influenced by religious motives, and because it seems hard that he should be put to death for doing what we cannot punish the Sultan, an independent and nominally friendly potentate, for having conspired with him to do; and they extenuate it also in its legal aspect, for the Sultan is still Suzerain of Egypt. It may be argued that Arabi owed allegiance to him as much as to the Khedive, and that if the wishes of the higher authority clashed with the authority of the latter, he was at liberty to obey the Sultan, who had also, as head of the Faith, a more sacred claim to his obedience. Putting all these things together, it may safely be predicted that the bullet which will pierce Arabi is not yet cast. Whether the Egyptian tribunal condemns him or not, the English Government—which has admitted that no sentence of death on him will in fact be carried out without its sanction—will not allow him to be executed. In all probability, he will be removed from Egypt and placed somewhere in a confinement which will prevent him from further endangering its peace.

Those who profess to know the East lift up their voices against such lenity. They declare that even now the Mussulman world does not realize—that the fellahs in the country parts of Egypt itself do not believe—that the insurrection has been suppressed and the champions of Islam overcome. Nothing but the death of the ring-leaders will suffice, they urge, to bring this home to the popular mind. Clemency is in the East always attributed to fear. If Arabi is not executed, it will be because the Sultan has forbidden it, and the English dare not provoke the Sultan. "And why," they add, "should not an Eastern game be played according to Eastern rules? When an Oriental leads a rebellion, when he even intrigues against his master, he stakes his head upon the issue. The distinction which Westerns draw between political offences and ordinary crimes does not exist there, and is unsuited to the conditions of Mohammedan society. If Arabi had captured Tewfik, he would without doubt have put Tewfik to death; why should he fare better when fortune has gone against him, especially as he was morally, if not

directly, guilty of the Alexandrian massacre?" Without disputing these reasonings, I can only repeat that every day which passes makes Arabi's head seem safer. England is in good humor over her successes; the massacre of Alexandria has receded into the distance; Arabi is in no more danger than was Jefferson Davis when he had been six months in prison.

These trials of the military rebels illustrate very clearly the difficulties which the English Government has to deal with in Egypt. They have to play an Eastern game according to Western rules, and that, too, with all Europe looking on. India is far away, and even now, in spite of telegraphs and newspaper correspondents, little of what passes in India attracts notice in Europe; but Egypt is near, and the great Mediterranean nations are interested in what happens there. All our mistakes are sure to be discovered and to be used unsparingly against us. Our position is novel, exceptional, indefinable. For some time Mr. Gladstone would not admit that we were at war in Egypt, and even in the vote of thanks passed by Parliament to the Army and Navy he spoke only of the "military operations" which had been successfully prosecuted there. We have not legally any further authority now in Cairo than we had a year ago, under the various treaties and protocols which secured various rights to France and ourselves and the other Powers. Such predominant authority as we undoubtedly possess is that of the sword; yet we are not conquerors, but allies who have been invoked to restore order. We are practically masters of the country, and responsible for whatever goes on there. If there is injustice, cruelty, oppression, Europe will blame us, and we shall blame ourselves. Yet how are we to prevent injustice, cruelty, oppression except by taking the administration out of the hands of the natives and assuming it ourselves? If we leave things alone, they go wrong; and we cannot sit by, keeping an army in the country, and quietly watch them getting worse. If we interfere, we destroy what prestige still remains to the Khedivial Government, we annoy the native ministers and dispose them to intrigue against us, we make further acts of interference more natural, more inevitable. These perplexities make the reestablishment of government in Egypt and the defining of our legal position there a very difficult problem.

In a future letter I hope to sketch the different views which prevail in England as to its solution. Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet is evidently quite sensible of the difficulty. Its members have carefully abstained from giving any glimpse of their intentions. Communications are believed to be passing between them and the other Powers of Europe, but no one yet knows how far such communications have gone. Meanwhile, a bold and unexpected step has been taken in despatching Lord Dufferin from Constantinople to Cairo, where he is to remain for some months, and no doubt to help the Government to prepare some scheme for a permanent settlement. It seems, from Mr. Gladstone's declarations in Parliament, that a convention regulating the occupation of Egypt by our troops is in preparation; but even this, a mere preliminary to further and more complicated arrangements, will not be given to the world for some time to come. Public opinion is thus permitted ample time to ripen. But from public opinion the Government have little light to expect: it is still uncertain and perplexed.

Y.

#### VENICE REVISITED.

VENICE, October 30, 1882.

EVEN in the days of Byron and Samuel Rogers Venice was a melancholy place, which he who

would be cheerful and joyous was bidden not to visit. The fantastic and dissolute luxury of the eighteenth century had been succeeded by languor, poverty, decay. It is not less melancholy now, when happier days, coming in the train of freedom, have dawned upon Italy. Indeed, in some ways Venice seems more weak and doleful, more entirely a thing of bygone days now, when she is free, than she did in the days of Austrian domination. Then, when a strong garrison held the city, when white-coated soldiers filled the streets, cannon stood loaded on the Piazza of St. Mark prepared to quell any sudden outbreak. The very efforts made to keep the people down made both place and people appear to have a life and importance in the present. One was reminded of the events whereby the ancient republic had fallen helplessly into the hands of France and Austria; and of those later days in which she had wiped out the dishonor of that fall by her revolt in 1848, and the gallant defence which she made under the leadership of Daniel Manin. One felt that another revolt, another struggle might be at hand, and speculated as to its incidents and its result. But now, when she and her old territories have been liberated, when she has subsided into the chief town of a province, with no separate and independent life of her own, and no prospect that any such will arise, the link between Past and Present seems to have been broken, and the Present displays nothing on which imagination can lay hold. It is only the Past that the stranger thinks of, and the thoughts that rise in his mind are those melancholy musings upon the greatness and decay of empires, upon the dissolution of old faiths, and the vanishing of old forms of art and life which the ruins of a feudal castle or the silent aisles of a mediaeval cathedral suggest to the traveller from some new home of industrial democracy.

Not that Venice is either ruinous or silent. If she were so, this sense of a chasm between the present and the past would not be so strong, because the impression she would make would be purely one of the past, which would then be felt to have lived on into our own time, still to dominate the minds of the inhabitants no less than of the visitor. This is the impression which such places as Toledo, or Ravenna, or Carcasonne, not to speak of Egypt and the further East, leave upon the traveller. But Venice is exerting herself to recover commercial consequence. There are steamers anchored in the Grand Canal and the Giudecca—steamers plying as far as Liverpool in one direction and Alexandria in the other. Two or three offices of ship brokers may be seen in the arcade which runs under the front of Sansovino's library. The glass and mosaic works of Murano employ a considerable number of workmen; nor are efforts wanting to re-establish other manufactures. So far, however, the trade of the port has not come to amount to much. Trieste, on the one side of the Italian peninsula, receives most of the goods destined to cross the Alps into Austria and East Germany; Genoa, on the other side, those which find their way to Switzerland, Western Germany, and the populous districts of Lombardy and Piedmont. The steamers injure the picturesque aspect of the place not only by their unshapely forms, but also by the volumes of smoke which they emit. They do not add much to the prosperity of the town, a large part, some say one-fourth, of whose population are steeped in pauperism. The real industry of Venice and the source of such prosperity as she enjoys is the reception of tourists. She has become one large art-gallery, cabinet of curiosities, architectural museum, for the travelling races of Europe and America.

Especially for the Teutonic races. This is perhaps what strikes one most on returning to the island city after the lapse of twenty years: this

and the disappearance of the priestly and monkish garb. Visitors of course there were even then, as there have been for a century past or more, ever since art died in Italy and people came to look at her grave. But they were then comparatively few, almost confined to rich people who were making a sort of grand tour of Italy, and artistic people who had a special purpose in studying Venetian architecture and pictures. Most of them were English, and the French were not wholly wanting. Now the Northern barbarians have descended upon Italy in a flood, though, to be sure, a fertilizing flood which scatters gold in its path. Germans predominate, not only because they are nearest and have easy access by the three lines of railway which now cross the Alps from Teutonic territory, but also because they are a curious and active-minded people, extremely fond of travel, and so simple in their habits as to be able to travel cheaply. Next to them in number seem to come the Americans. The English have only the third place, and the French, if there are any French, appear quite lost in the superabundance of Teutons. During the tourist months, and especially, of course, during September and October, one might think that there were as many strangers as natives in Venice. In and all round the Piazza of St. Mark nothing is heard but German and English. Most of the handsome palaces at the sea end of the Grand Canal have become hotels, and new ones are continually being opened. The consequences are not altogether pleasant. There is always a crowd in all the more famous places of resort, such as the Ducal Palace and the three great "show churches." One is not permitted to see anything in one's own way, for officious cicerones are pestering at every turn; nor can one even ask the way in the street, for somebody rushes forward who insists on accompanying and becoming a guide for the rest of the day. It is entertaining to watch the result of the efforts which enthusiastic ladies make to study art under the auspices of Mr. Ruskin. They go with his book, 'St. Mark's Rest,' in their hands to the façade of the Ducal Palace, hoping to verify his description of the sculptured capitals and to feel all the profound symbolism which he discovers therein. Before the first capital is finished a beggar is at the student's elbow. She endeavors to appear absorbed, but in a few seconds yields to the whine and bestows the soldo. Then another comes, and another, and another. The stock of small change is exhausted, and the decipherment of the capitals is abandoned before half of them have been compared with Mr. Ruskin's pages. Tiresome as all this is, no one who sees how much real interest the tourists, German, American, and English, are learning to take in what they see, how much more they are profiting by it now than they would have done twenty or thirty years ago, will regret the growing afflux. But one asks one's self what it will have become when every German feels himself uneducated till he has seen Italy, and when America contains three hundred millions of people.

As the number of strangers who come to see Venice increases, the value of that which is to be seen diminishes. That passion for restoration which overspreads Italy and France could not be expected to spare a place so much in the world's eye. The municipality is poor, but these restorations are often undertaken by the King's Government, so that even poverty is no protection. There has been a great deal of controversy over the necessity of the works undertaken at St. Mark's and the Ducal Palace, some contending that there was no way to preserve the buildings except by taking down the old walls and column shafts and putting up new ones, while others declare that a little judicious propping

would have been sufficient. So as to the mosaics: one set of artists and architects, mostly Englishmen interested in these matters, condemn altogether the taking down of the ancient mosaics and putting up of new ones in their places, alleging that this is done partly in order to provide work for local artists and manufacturers, partly from the preference which Italians have for bright, new, gaudy things over old and mouldering ones; while the Italians reply by insisting that the old mosaics were dropping to pieces, so that nothing remained but to replace them by new ones copied as closely as possible from the old. Whatever the truth may be, the value and beauty of the buildings cannot help suffering. Scarcely anything stands now as it stood twenty years ago. Half the capitals on the lower sea façade of the Palace are new; and whether their sculpture be good or bad (for as to this, also, a controversy rages), their fresh white contrasts painfully with the weather-beaten dark gray of the remainder. The new mosaics in St. Mark's do not harmonize with the old ones: parts of the outside which have been scraped have lost that softness of hue which ages of exposure had given them.

Some of these misfortunes are unavoidable; but other errors have been committed which might have been spared. A very long high wall has been erected around the Arsenal on the northeast sea front; and both the color of its bricks and the tastelessness of its design make it spoil one of the most striking general views of the city. On the smaller islands that lie round Venice new and hideous buildings are being erected where formerly gardens or vineyards surrounded a few houses or some lonely little convent. Two large lunatic asylums cover two such islands which one sees in going out to the Lido; on a third, S. Francesco in Deserto, they are putting up a big iron foundry, whose chimneys will mar a singularly romantic and characteristic prospect. In the city itself large gas-lamps have been set up in the middle of the Piazza and Piazzetta, so that those effects of brilliant moonlight in the open, contrasting with the deep shadows under the buildings, which used to be so fascinating, and kept one sitting half the night upon the Piazzetta quay, under the spell of that matchless scene, are now no longer to be had. The impressiveness of the Piazza itself, with its great smooth unbroken space, the one large space in a city of narrow lanes and tiny courts, is sadly diminished. They have started a service of steam omnibuses on the Grand Canal—little shrieking creatures whose whizz and cry is never silent all along its winding shores. The protests of American and English visitors against these "improvements" find no echo among the native Italians—indeed, seem to nettle them. For modern Italy does not like to be admired for the sake of her achievements of centuries long past, but for herself—for what she is now and is to be in the future as a free and powerful nation. She is not content to be a land of ruins and old pictures; nor can one blame her, however regrettable the results of her desire to restore and to improve.

These are jarring notes in the symphony of Venice. Yet even were they far more numerous they would not make its music mute. Venice retains her strange and peculiar charm beyond all other cities of Italy—beyond Rome and Florence, though they have far more to show in the way of art and history; beyond Ravenna and Pisa, though they are more perfect fragments of the earlier Middle Ages; beyond Verona and Perugia, though the Alps look down on the one and the Apennines upon the other. And this charm is not less powerful over the pensive mind of maturer age than on the fresh enthusiasm of youth. What is the secret of this charm? It is not

to be wholly found in the mere singularity of Venice as a city whose streets are of water, though this is the first thing which strikes the visitor and the one characteristic which everybody knows. Beautiful as the canals are, the rich and infinitely varied picturesqueness of the place is better appreciated when one saunters through it on foot, losing one's self in the maze of lanes connecting tiny courts and crossing tiny bridges, each of which is like enough to the others to perplex one's recollection, yet different enough to have the charm of novelty. This complexity produces a wonderful impression of the size of the town, so that when one mounts to the top of the great Campanile and looks round, it is hard to believe that what seemed so large when one was wandering through it is really a place of very moderate size—not bigger than Detroit or Richmond, not as big as Edinburgh or Sheffield. Nor, again, is it in the peculiar grace of that Gothic architecture which we call Venetian; nor in that richness of color which is the glory of Venetian painters; nor even, perhaps, in the strange and romantic sense of isolation due to the position of the city, lying out at sea, yet in a calm and peaceful sea, with a perpetual silence brooding over her. All these things do, no doubt, help to weave the spell, but its potency seems to be most of all in the peculiar lines and lights of the surrounding landscape, and in the marvellous sense of breadth and space which that landscape gives. The silver floor of sea that stretches out all round the town throws up a sheen of light which glorifies the humblest building. The vast expanse of sky—a true sea sky, as those familiar with the ocean know—has room for an endless play of clouds, for storms here and sunshine there, for swift changes from gloom to brilliance and brilliance back to gloom. The pearly light that glitters along the southern horizon over the Adriatic is matched on the north by the shadowy forms of the great Alps, stretching further than eye can follow to the east. Westward the sharp volcanic outline of the Euganean Hills, dear to every lover of Shelley, breaks the level line of plain and stands out vivid against the sunset, while in the remotest northwest, a hundred miles away, a patch of gleaming white marks the snowfields of the Adamello and the frontiers of Italy. And in Venice one can never forget this background, for on all sides the streets and the canals open out on the sea and the free space beyond. You emerge from a dim church or glide out of a dark canal, and see far down the vista the glowing blue of the lagoon, and over it an endless depth of air. Nowhere, not even in mid-ocean, does one seem to have such a sense of space all round, nor such a variety of those most tender and delicate effects of color which vast air spaces give; nor do any prospects appeal more to the imagination, for on one side we look down that sea highway which the navies and the merchantmen of Venice traversed, conquering the islands of the East, and bringing home its wealth; on the other there hangs over the plain that mighty mountain rampart from whose recesses all the conquerors of Italy have descended, and behind which they have within our own memory retreated.

It is not only because Venice and her landscapes touch the mind and the emotions in so many ways that her fascination is so peculiar, but because these influences are so quiet and subtle, rather felt than perceived, and not all felt at first, but slowly growing day after day upon the traveller as he becomes more attuned to his environment. Those, therefore, who pass hastily through, as most of us do now when there is so much to visit and so little leisure to visit it, lose no small part both of the benefit and the pleasure. There is not only less left to see now than there was a century ago, but less favorable

conditions for seeing it. Yet the taste is finer and the knowledge wider; the average tourist, whom it is the fashion to sneer at, is usually abler to see and judge and profit than were the rich dilettanti of last century.

## Correspondence.

### SOUTHERN HOMICIDES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : Only through quotations made by other papers have I seen your article referring to the too frequent use of deadly weapons by men of the best classes in the Southern States. I have no time to speculate as to the cause, but I know that in the main you are right as to facts and deductions. Two generations ago it was the custom among Southerners to fight duels, public opinion countenancing it, as I know from the fact that my maternal grandfather, a Kentucky editor born in Virginia, fought and bore the marks of almost deadly wounds of pistol and knife. Though duelling is now infrequent, the street and bar-room rencontres have taken its place. Unless this habit can be cured, the Southern people must degenerate to the level of the worst Spaniards and Italians, and he is their best friend who points out the fault, not who declares it does not exist. SOUTHERNER.

MISSOURI, December 1, 1882.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : Being Southern born and educated, fully appreciating Southern faults, personal and political, having always denounced and ridiculed duelling, and denounced in all proper ways the struggle for the "lost cause," you will concede that any dissent from the severity of your criticisms, and any defence of the South by me, proceeds not entirely from Southern prejudice. Your criticisms—I refrained from calling them fierce denunciations—have been too severe, and positively, but not intentionally, unjust, for the following reasons :

You always allude to "civilization" and the manners of "savages." Now, the first question to be settled is, What is civilization ? I don't attempt to define it at all, but I venture to suggest that a healthy and fruitful civilization has several elements in it besides the "sacredness of human life." We must aim to discover the general average of benefits conferred which make human life happy, make it worth having. Your argument is one-sided because it discusses and dwells upon but one feature of life—an occasional homicide, certainly very much to be deplored and deprecated. The severity of your criticisms is unwise, and they amount to a positive public calamity because of the feeling of injury and injustice which they excite in the minds of the good people of a whole section. The result is the Southern people say, "The North either cannot or will not understand us; they continue to insult and denounce us outside of politics"; and the day of real union is postponed, if not prevented.

Leaving out of view homicides caused by or growing out of political or race quarrels, which have been numerous, have been owing to exceptional and temporary causes, of very great heat and bitterness, and are rapidly on the decline—leaving out these, homicide is not much more frequent at the South than at the North, Mr. Redfield to the contrary notwithstanding. Homicides at the South are nearly always for personal causes or feelings, while at the North they are far more frequently for plunder. Homicides at the South are nearly always in open fight, while at the North they

are more frequently by stealth, preconcerted arrangement, to take the victim at a disadvantage. Violence to females, leading to the homicide of either the victim or the perpetrator, are less frequent at the South than at the North.

Still, leaving out of view political homicides, which cannot be too severely denounced, but which have been exaggerated, the fact remains and cannot be denied that homicides at the South are more frequently among those who are called and ought to be gentlemen, certainly citizens of prominence, while at the North they more frequently occur among the low and vulgar. This gives greater prominence and publicity to Southern homicides, and makes them more frequent than at the North, and seem more frequent than they really are. Why is it that at the South homicides are more frequent among supposed-to-be respectable people than at the North ? The answer is not far to seek. Though historical, it lies on the surface; and in pointing it out we again find ourselves involved in that larger question of "civilization" which you always mix up with this one question of fact of homicide. The North was peopled mainly from New England, and New England was peopled, morally and socially speaking, from Plymouth Rock. The Pilgrims—the severely religious Roundhead Puritans—fled from the Cavaliers and the Established Church. They and their children, though good soldiers against the Indians, the French, and the British, had a religious, moral, domestic education that abhorred personal combat and bloodshed. The Cavalier fled from the Puritan and liberal ascendancy in England, and settled in Virginia and the Carolinas, and Virginia and the Carolinas have peopled the South. These were not only gentlemen in the conventional sense, but, for their day and generation, they were gentlemen. But they were gentlemen of the pistol and rapier school. They were fox-hunters, they were slave-owners, and they were fighters—that is, not often actually fighting, but very ready to fight. The least imputation upon personal honor or truthfulness, the least affront to a lady, might instantly lead to bloodshed. A more gallant, genial, graceful, frank, courteous, hospitable, high-toned set of fellows were never found in this or any other country. They brought the duello with them. Now, all the people of the South are not descendants of these gentlemen. Far from it. But we know how their manners and habits, especially the worse features of them, will permeate, leaven, educate the whole community, and how the things supposed to be required by "honor" will coarsen as they descend among the vulgar; how the courtly duel will develop into a street or bar-room fight, with "Arkansas toothpicks" as the weapons. But did these gentlemen, whose manners were formed in Europe, on the pattern and in the school of chivalry, do no good ? With all the good-natured railing, and sometimes fierce contempt, heaped upon the follies of the original article of chivalry in Europe, has it done the world, civilization, no good ? Let woman answer that question.

I would not at all encourage personal combat, the avenging of one's supposed wrongs by one's own hands. With a few rare exceptions and emergencies, it cannot be too severely condemned nor too promptly punished. But I do solemnly protest against making "the sacredness of human life," or "respect" for human life, the only or even the principal test or measure of civilization. Life is a means, an opportunity to an end. That end is happiness. But that happiness is the happiness of our neighbors, of the community, as well as the happiness of the owner of that particular life. Society cannot exist except on the theory that certain things forfeit the right to live. This "sacredness of human life" may easily become a morbid,

unwholesome sentimentalism. It may become a two-edged sword. It has already done so—for all you know. One man kills another at the South. The slayer is indicted. The advocate for the defendant talks ingeniously of passion and hot-blood, deeply regrets the death of the slain, dwells upon the "sacredness of human life," says one valuable life is gone, we can't restore him by hanging another, and the defendant is acquitted, when he ought certainly to have been hanged.

Finally, recurring, as you always compel us, to the question, What is civilization—what is savagery ? I will not discuss it, but only submit that the test is not solely the absence or presence of duels and street fights. I have not heard of the civilization of the South producing a Professor Webster nor a Nathan case; we do not hear of the professional boy-killer at the South; nor of a religious fanatic sacrificing his little daughter; nor do they have so many Malley cases, nor Hayden cases; nor do we hear of the uniformed protectors of society clubbing an anxious father while sitting on his door-steps to give the sick infant in his arms a little fresh air. While living at the South I was exceedingly provoked with some Southern preachers, because they so quickly and so powerfully fanned the flames of rebellion. But I never heard of one of them whipping his little girl to death because she did not say her prayers correctly. The North has more good colleges than the South, but I never heard of a Southern professor chasing and shooting a student because the lad had lifted the professor's front gate off its hinges. Was there insanity in any of these cases—a fanaticism run mad ? Possibly. But what did it ? What are all the elements of a wholesome and useful civilization—a civilization that produces happiness ? Our answer must not be one-sided, nor based on a few street fights.

Y.

NEW YORK, November 25, 1882.

### ART FOR ART'S SAKE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : In your review, on the 9th of November, of Tuckerman's 'History of Fiction,' you touch upon the underlying moral purpose in the Anglo-Saxon novel, and the Neo-Pagan criticism of such purpose from the artistic standpoint. You allude to the fact that the highest development of prose fiction has been produced by this method, but fail to point out that such a moral purpose underlies every great art period. It is this moral purpose which produces that quality which we call the grand manner. The great masters of the great art periods have all been distinguished for the high and serious quality of their work. No great art period has existed without it. We find it everywhere: in the Greek periods of song and sculpture, in Raphael, in Michael Angelo, in the divine Dante, in Boccaccio and Cervantes. Lack of purpose is the want felt in the French school of prose fiction and painting.

Has not the Neo-Pagan method of art for art's sake alone, and the development of what you call the anti-moral phase of art, marked the decadence of all great periods ?

C. P.

### A BATTLE THAT IS A BATTLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : In your review of 'The Friendships of Mary Russell Mitford,' a queer old English Tory, Sir William Elford, is noticed as being apparently quite in earnest in holding that war, plague, and famine are the necessary means, "according to the course and construction of the animal world," of keeping down population, and war is the least

unpleasant of the three ; "so that to deprecate war is to fly in the face of nature." An Englishman named Thompson fought as a volunteer in the Texan Army at the battle of San Jacinto. He was walking meditatively over the field among the Mexican dead, soon after the battle, when he was accosted by Dr. Sheppard, my informant, with, "Well, Thompson, how is this for a victory?" "No victory at all," was the reply. "Why, what's the matter? haven't we killed enough?" "Oh, yes, it will do; but I have always wanted to be in a battle where they were all killed on both sides!" Sir William and this Thompson were much akin.

N. N.

BELLEVILLE, III.

## Notes.

THE CENTURY Co. will publish directly, from advance sheets, a new and enlarged edition of Ogilvie's 'Imperial Dictionary of the English Language,' in four octavo volumes, illustrated profusely, as this work has always been; indeed, if we remember aright, its example in this direction was what led to the pictorial Webster and Worcester. The 'Imperial Dictionary' has very distinct and admirable features.

Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, will issue in a few days 'The Times of Gustav Adolf,' as the first volume of Topelius's 'Surgeon's Stories.'

'A Gift of Gentians, and other Verses,' by May Riley Smith, will be brought out with holiday elaborateness by A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

If there was need of an American illustrated scientific weekly like the London *Nature*, there were two places at one or other of which it should be published—viz., Washington, and Cambridge, Mass. The attempt made in this city by the projector of *Science* proved a failure, as might have been predicted. The name, which was a good one, being thus left unappropriated, it has been adopted for a new venture to be published by Moses King, at Cambridge, on behalf of a powerful organization of scientific men, with a fund at their command and Dr. A. Graham Bell at their head. The editor will be Mr. Samuel H. Scudder, who resigns his position as assistant librarian of Harvard University. The new paper will appear early in the coming year. Its collaboration will be on a commercial basis so far as regards original contributions, book reviews, etc. It is perhaps a pity that it will not be printed as well as published in Cambridge.

The *Atlantic Monthly* will hereafter be published in England simultaneously with its appearance in this country, through Ward, Lock & Tyler, instead of, as heretofore, through Trübner & Co.

Much the most sensible discourse we have ever read on the "Study of Short-hand" appears in the *Californian* for December, 1882, from the pen of Mr. T. S. Van Dyke.

B. Westermann & Co. send us Parts 51-56 of the new "chromo edition" of 'Brehm's Thierleben' (Mammals). They will also soon have from across the water a new novel by Georg Ebers, entitled 'Ein Wort.' The time is of the sixteenth century, and the hero a German adventurer in foreign lands.

The Christmas number of the *Publishers' Weekly* is, as usual, a picture-book quite as much as a guide to book-buyers.

D. Appleton & Co. put their imprint on a pretty English edition of 'Sir Roger De Coverly,' of which the illustrations are by Mr. Charles O. Murray. This designer is seen at his best, we think, in the etched frontispiece of Sir Roger and the widow. The woodcuts, though well enough, are not remarkable.

R. Worthington has published, in a showy

octavo volume, with large type and open page, Alexander Thomson's translation of Suetonius's 'Lives of the Twelve Caesars,' apparently the text as revised in Bohn's edition. The latter, however, contains also the treatises on famous grammarians, rhetoricians, and poets, which are wanting in the present edition. On the other hand, engravings of the busts of the emperors and their wives have now been usefully inserted.

We have already noticed as they appeared Macmillan's illustrated sixpenny quarto editions of 'Tom Brown's School Days,' Waterton's 'Wanderings in South America,' and Irving's 'Old Christmas' and 'Bracebridge Hall.' These have since been bound up together, in the order given, with tasteful cloth covers. Inside, the result is rather heterogeneous, owing to the mixture of two and three-column pages, large and small type, the diversity of designs, etc. The price, too, for the binding seems large, but altogether it is far below the cost of the several books in any other form.

The quality of Wilhelm Busch's humor is already known somewhat widely in this country by his 'Max and Maurice.' It resembles nothing American, and is not likely to have any imitators among us. That it has admirers and propagandists is shown by the Rev. Charles T. Brooks's further translation of the text which accompanies Busch's designs, in 'Plish and Plum' (Boston: Roberts Bros.).

Mr. John A. Jennings's 'Readings from the Works of Charles Dickens' (Dublin: Carson Bros.) shortens to advantage many of Dickens's own selections as given in the Ticknor & Fields edition of 1868. It also adds a number which are certainly not hackneyed, but the taste of which for public delivery is somewhat doubtful. Mr. Jennings seems to have aimed to make the readings as dramatic as possible, and has succeeded very well in this. On the whole, the compilation is to be recommended for its declared purpose. The print is clear, but rather too fine.

We have received the prospectus of a subscription work, of which the limited edition will be numbered and signed, derived from the MS. 'View of the State of the Clergy within the County of Essex [England],' preserved at Kimbolton Castle among the papers of the Duke of Manchester. The date is about 1603. The editor, Mr. B. Beedham, of Ashfield House, near Kimbolton, is engaged upon an introduction, illustrative notes, and an index which will greatly enhance the value of this publication. To give some idea of its interest, especially for New Englanders, we may state that Mr. Beedham has made extensive researches concerning Ezekiel Culverwell, who officiated at the marriage of John Winthrop, then aged seventeen, with his first wife, a resident in Culverwell's parish of Great Stambridge, and who remained on intimate terms with the future Governor. Little has hitherto been known about Culverwell, and many corrections will be made in the accepted accounts of him. Though nominally of the Church, the Essex clergy of the period in question were Nonconformists at heart, and Culverwell was deprived of his rectory for refusing to conform. The subscription price for this work is fifteen shillings.

We are glad that Mr. Goldwin Smith's return to America insures the revival of his personal organ, the *Bystander*. The first number of a new series is, we understand, now in the press.

The great success of the free lectures at the National Museum in Washington has led to the enlargement of the course for the coming year, and to the institution of a course for the High-School pupils, which will precede the other.

From the General United States Agency, No. 2 Wall Street, we have received the ground plan

of the Dutch International Exhibition, to be held in Amsterdam from May 1 to October 31, 1883.

L. Prang & Co. send us a great variety of their Christmas and New Year illuminated cards, including under the former head the designs for which prizes were awarded (a) by a committee of artists and (b) by popular vote. There was coincidence of judgment only in the case of the first prize, won by Miss Dora Wheeler, and, barring some incongruities in her conception, it was rightly preferred to the others. Miss L. B. Humphreys's child kneeling to Santa Claus at the hearthstone ranked second, and has perhaps more genuine and natural sentiment than any of its competitors. The remaining themes were somewhat hackneyed.

Miss Leggett, too, offers "premium Christmas cards," seven in number, of which three were designed by male artists who were successful also in the Prang competition. They are of nearly uniform size, and range from Mr. Alfred Fredericks's conventional "Angels and Child" to Mr. W. H. Beard's animal feast. The color printing is not comparable with that of the Prang series.

At the formal reopening of the courses in the University of Liège, says the *Athenaeum Belge*, the Rector, M. Trasenster, delivered an address on the necessity of admitting women to the higher education (*de créer un enseignement supérieur pour les femmes*). His views as quoted in the journal just named deserve to be translated, as their bearing is not confined to France and Belgium.

The sixth part of Leuckart and Nitsche's 'Zoologische Wandtafel' (Cassel: T. Fischer; New York: B. Westermann & Co.), containing plates xv.-xvii., has just appeared. It includes a plate by Dr. Leuckart on the structure and development of the tape-worm, one on the hydroids, and a third illustrating the structure of Phylloxera, its injurious effects on the vine, and its distribution in France. This number fully sustains the character of the series as the best and at the same time the cheapest set of wall plates in the comparative anatomy and embryology of invertebrates. Each plate is devoted to a single class or order, and shows the anatomy and main features in the development of one or more forms. There are, on the average, about nine figures in each plate, and these are printed in colors either natural or (in anatomical illustrations) diagrammatic. In the present number, plate xv. contains a large figure of *Tænia saginata*, and detailed figures of the head and mature segments in two stages of this species and those of *T. solium*, with a figure of the cysticerus of the latter species. Plate xvi. has five figures on the structure of *Hydra*, and seven others of typical hydroids. Plate xvii., in addition to figures of diseased roots and leaves of the vine, has thirteen illustrations of eggs, larvae, and adults of the Phylloxera. The series now includes in its illustrations of insects three of the most destructive forms—the grasshopper, the potato-beetle, and the Phylloxera. Each plate is about forty-two by fifty-four inches in size, is accompanied with explanatory text, and, unmounted, will cost in this country about one dollar.

—Our civil-service deformity manifests itself as well in State and municipal as in national affairs. Last June we noted the fact, which came out at the Cincinnati Convention of Librarians, that the greater part of the Western librarians owe their appointment to, and fear removals from, purely political causes. We have just heard that the State Librarian of Indiana, a capable officer, has been decapitated in consequence of the recent elections, to make way for one of whom

we know nothing, but who, it is safe to say, has probably not superior qualifications. The State Librarian of Michigan is also threatened. This is a particularly aggravated case. The present incumbent is declared by competent judges to be the only good librarian the State has ever had. When she took charge of the library the room was a lounging place, the sets of books were very incomplete, and in the way of further spoliation. She soon established order and decorum; she made herself familiar with the books, so as to direct inquirers, and set herself to fill up deficiencies, by purchase or exchange, as fast as the means of the library would allow. The library thus well cared for received more attention and larger appropriations from the State, and is now declared to be, for its size, a remarkably good one. The law library particularly is said to be well selected; for Mrs. Tenney, one of the judges says, has shown more judgment in buying than most lawyers. This is the official who is to be turned out to make way for a woman who has stumped the State for the victorious party. If the new claimant were an excellent librarian, it would be gross ingratitude to turn out a faithful and efficient officer to make way for her. Probably she knows nothing whatever of the work. Librarians are born, but they have to be made also. When one who was evidently a born librarian has also been made by the experience of a number of years, it is very poor political economy, however good politics it may be, to let her services be lost to the State, and take in her place one who has all the experience to gain. A few instructed persons know that to perform the work of a librarian fairly requires months of apprenticeship; to perform it well requires years of practice. This, however, after all, is not to the point. The desire of the politician is, not that the public service should be well done, but that his friends should be so treated that they will support him at the next election.

In his address before the Physics Section of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at Montreal in August (now printed in pamphlet form), Prof. T. C. Mendenhall has given a clear and concise view of the problem presented to our colleges, universities, and schools of science in the methods of instruction in physics. He shows that the courses of instruction which have been adopted are unbalanced. In some schools, physics is used merely as the ground on which to display a mathematical analysis whose symbols often convey to the student but vague conceptions of the physical relations which these symbols are intended to show. In support of this opinion the author quotes Mr. G. H. Darwin, who, in speaking of his experience as examiner in the highest school of mathematical physics, says:

"The subject which exhibited the average weakness of grasp most flagrantly was thermodynamics. A great many men had read something of it, but very few really understood what they attempted to explain. Extraordinary muddle and confusion was sent up in answer to a question on the absolute scale of temperature. On another question, while the very elements were unknown to those who answered, the same men reproduced faultlessly the algebraic calculation of the thermodynamic function for a perfect gas."

In other courses of physics too much is done in mere qualitative and indefinite work, of little value in those applications of physics which are affecting so profoundly the relations of individuals and of nations. Professor Mendenhall, we think, is quite right in urging that quantitative work should alone be pursued in our physical laboratories, and that mere qualitative or illustrative work should be relegated to the lecture-room. The teaching of physics in a school of science may be divided into three parts: (1) a thorough course of mathema-

tics; (2) a course of text-book and lecture work (fully illustrated by carefully prepared experiments), in which the student shall learn to apply his mathematical knowledge in the elucidation of the phenomena of physics; (3) the work in the physical laboratory, in which each problem given shall be discussed mathematically and experimentally, and more attention be paid to the quality than to the amount of performance. The balancing of these three parts of the course so as to bring about their harmonious operation is a point to which Professor Mendenhall wishes to call special attention.

—It is not long since we had 'Arrows of the Chace,' a collection of Mr. Ruskin's letters to the newspapers, and now Mr. Charles Reade has gone and done likewise, and we have a volume of 'Readiana: Comments on Current Events' (London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribner & Welford; 8vo, pp. 330). A very few of the articles here gathered together are regular essays or sketches; the "Box-Tunnel" is one, and "A Brave Woman" is another. The rest have at least the form of letters. In the catalogues of dealers in autographs we often see appended to some showy item the phrase, "a characteristic specimen." There is scarcely a letter in this volume to which this phrase might not be applied justly. Most of them are perfervid and fiery, and recall the epigram to the effect that "Mr. Reade is a literary fusee—you have only to touch him and he goes off!" Some are feeling and eloquent appeals, like "A Hero and a Martyr" and the tribute to "A Dramatic Musician." Some deal with topics of permanent interest, like the hundred pages devoted to "The Rights and Wrongs of Authors," which is in fact a historical discussion of the copyright question, recalling the earlier work on "The Eighth Commandment." But most of them have been called forth by some passing wrong either against himself or against some one who needed a defender; and all of these are written at white heat, and glow even now as we read them through the non-conducting types. More interesting to an American reader than any argument about Col. Valentine Baker or the Tichborne claimant are the many defences of Mr. Reade himself and of his works. We have here the letters defining the "Sham-Sample Swindle" and the "Prurient Prude," and the letters defending "A Terrible Temptation" against the charge of indecency, and "Foul Play" against the charge of plagiarism. Altogether this collection of Mr. Reade's epistolary correspondence with the public through the papers is a volume which no one can afford to overlook who is really interested in one of the most original and vigorous writers of fiction of our time.

—The transformation of France from the most bellicose to the most pacific of nations has been commented upon by all the journalists with astonishment and in some cases, one fancies, with a slight feeling of disappointment. It is so much more commonplace to settle down into the calm pursuit of physical or even of artistic comfort than to shriek *La gloire!* to astonish Africa with zouaves, and to see Europe listening to catch even the silence of one's Emperor; quiet and money are so much less romantic than *la revanche*. A similar change is making itself seen in internal affairs. It is not so many years ago that the Commune held a carnival of unreason in the French capital. Compare with this the result of the strikes at Montceau-les-Mines, and the threatening letters which turn out to be hoaxes in that formerly most dangerous city, Lyons, and the entire indifference shown by the miners at St.-Etienne to the Socialist Congress held there late in September. The Socialists, after quarrelling among themselves (the "Opportunists" expelling the "Révolutionnaires"), finding, like

Mahomet, that the mine would not come to them, resolved to go to the mine, and organized conferences to which they invited the miners; but at one of these, when they urged the latter to take possession of the mine and the plant, they met with a unanimous cry of protestation. "Since the miners are not *à la hauteur*," said one of the Socialists, "we will go into the mine and bring them by force into the workman's party." To which a miner replied: "Well, come into the mine and see how you will be received. If you knew what the miners think of you, you would moderate your propaganda. When workmen leave your conferences they carry away this opinion of you: that you are trying to force yourself forward at their expense, and only excite them to revolt because you find it profitable for yourselves." The reproach is said to be deserved, the members of the Congress being almost entirely *bourgeois*, some of them pretty well off, or writers, or members of liberal professions, and by no means laborers. It is a healthy sign when workmen begin to feel some distrust of counsels coming entirely from the outside, and from persons who have nothing to lose by the course which they advise. The accredited representative of the miners is of an entirely different character, M. Michel Rondelet, an energetic, hard-working, and intelligent miner, who has been forced by his companions to leave underground work and devote himself entirely to the defence of their interests. For this service he receives five francs a day—not magnificent pay for an advocate; but if he received more, they would trust him less.

—The Socialist Congress having shown itself entirely unpractical, the Syndical Chamber of Miners called for October 1 a meeting of all the deputies of the mining districts, in order to lay before them the grievances and claims of their laboring constituents. Nine deputies came. A representative of the great companies spoke first. He was followed by M. Rondelet, who read the manifesto of the Syndical Chamber, setting forth their demands, which bore chiefly on three points: *caisses de secours*, hours of labor, and accidents. The deputies promised to take the demands into serious consideration and labor to find a solution of the difficulties. A dinner followed, of which perhaps the most noteworthy feature was that the miners kept on their hats during the whole of the three hours that it lasted. With the most friendly intentions the deputies could not follow their example. We do not suppose that there are to be no more communistic cakes and ale, any more than that we have seen the last French war. At this very meeting of conciliation the last thing said was the remark of a representative of the miners to the deputies: "You know now what we wish. If you do not grant our demands, we shall see what we shall see." But there is evidently a beginning and more than a beginning.

—The prolific French novelist, M. Louis Ulbach, who has been taking a short trip in Holland, expresses his wonder at the progress made since eighteen years ago, he made one of those little journeys which Liberal writers used to find necessary now and then under the Empire. Amsterdam has more than doubled its population and its extent. Moreover, owing to the force of individual initiative and independence upon the Government to do everything, "as we Parisians do," it has gained as much in quality as in quantity. The tramways, as all Europe calls our horse-cars, are more comfortable and more profitable than in Paris; everybody uses the telephone—the man that does not is remarked; a great zoological and botanical garden, which the Jardin des Plantes might envy, has been founded; and finally, a great exhibition is to be held

there in 1883, and the Dutch, who have been rivalled only by the Belgians and the Americans in literary piracy, are to see the sixth Congress of the International Literary Association, and perhaps be converted.

The French School at Athens continued last summer its investigations in Delos, which have been going on for several years. The results of the work of this season are not without much interest, although it could not be expected that they would approach in importance the work already done upon the Temple of the Delian Apollo, and the discovery a few years ago in the sacred precinct of the wonderful series of archaic sculptures which have thrown new light upon the study of early Greek plastic art. Among the most important discoveries of this season are a fine inscribed mosaic, found near the sacred harbor, a colossal statue of the Goddess Force, by Melanos the Athenian, and a statue above natural size of a kneeling Gallic soldier—a work of Agasios of Ephesus, the artist who carved the famous "Borghese Warrior" of the Louvre. The excavation of the theatre has also been begun, and has revealed great marble tripods set up in the orchestra as votive offerings, and two Atlantes, which once supported either (like those of the Dionysiac Theatre) the floor of the stage, or some raised platform or part of the stage building. The seats immediately surrounding the orchestra of this theatre are provided with backs similar in character to those of the Odeion of Herodes in Athens.

A new imitator of *Notes and Queries* has appeared at Padua—*Giornale degli Eruditi Curiosi*, of which the first number appeared in October, and the price is twenty lire (\$4) a year. It may be worth while to recall the other journals of like character. They are, so far as we can recollect, *Notes and Queries*, 1849-82, the parent of them all; *De Navorscher*, Amsterdam, 1855-82; *L'Intermédiaire des Chercheurs et Curieux*, Paris, 1864-82 (No. 347 is dated October 25); one published at Madrid called, if we remember right, *El Intermediario*; *Educational Notes and Queries* (Salem, Ohio, 1875-81); and finally the long-titled *Miscellaneous, Literary, Scientific, and Historical Notes, Queries, and Answers* (No. 1, July, 1882, Manchester, N. H.). Every library of any size has *Notes and Queries*, but *L'Intermédiaire* is not often to be met with, and we doubt if half-a-dozen libraries in the country have *De Navorscher* and *El Intermediario*. The *Education in Notes and Queries*, also, is very scarce in the East. A number of periodicals have a column of "Notes and Queries" (*Polybiblion* and the *Library Journal* occur to us at this moment). Several libraries hang up strips of yellow paper, headed "Questions and Answers," as an intermediary for their frequenters. The column "Answers to Correspondents" in numberless journals amounts to the same thing. So does Mr. George Augustus Sala's "Echoes of the Week" in the *Illustrated London News*. Thus, knowledge is broken up fine, as soil is made by Mr. Darwin's earthworms. What will grow in it?

It is now—thanks, mainly, to the researches of Professor Dozy, of Leyden—well established that there are two Cids: a legendary Campeador, the hero of a thousand battles for the Cross and paragon of all chivalric and civic virtues, and an historical Rodrigo Diaz de Bivar, a famous freebooter, fighting by turns under the Christian banner of Spain and under that of her infidel foes. It was ultra-scepticism which tried to consign the Cid among such mythical heroes as Amadis de Gaul, Tell, or Romulus. And his Ximena, too, is no myth. The very marriage-contract which united them

in wedlock is still extant in the original. The remains of both have also been preserved in a double sarcophagus at the Carthusian monastery of San Pedro de Cardeña, near Burgos. They were, however—as has recently been made public—not left intact there after the victory of the French near that city in November, 1808. About a year ago a literary company, including Dr. von Lehner and Dr. Lauser, a diligent writer on Spanish history, on visiting the art galleries of Prince Charles Anthony of Hohenzollern, at Sigmaringen, were surprised by their host's pointing out to them an artistically-wrought sarcophagus, containing, as he said, bodily relics of the Campeador and his famous consort. Lauser subsequently revisited Sigmaringen in the company of Tubino, a member of the Spanish Academy, and, with the permission of the Prince, examined both the remains and the documents referring to them in the Archives of Hohenzollern. The facts elicited are these: After the battle of Burgos, Prince Salm-Dyck and two French officers of high rank visited the monastery of San Pedro, which had been ransacked by the French soldiery. The double sarcophagus being found broken open, they carried off a part of its sacred remains, which Prince Salm-Dyck afterward placed in a small sarcophagus executed after the Spanish model. A protocol, drawn up in Paris in 1811, duly authenticated the fact of transfer. In his old age, in 1857, Salm-Dyck presented the treasure to his friend Prince Charles Anthony. The latter, being asked by his guests whether he would be inclined to restore the relics to Spain if the gift were deemed valuable, answered in the affirmative. The necessary inquiries were made, King Alfonso XII. sent the Prince an autograph letter, and the favor asked for has been politely granted by the father of the Prince, Leopold of Hohenzollern, who, in 1870, was offered by Prim and his followers the crown of Spain, torn from the brow of Alfonso's mother.

The third volume of Sara F. Hennell's "Present Religion" (Trübner, 1882) is introduced by a prolonged dissertation on comparative ethics from a somewhat novel standpoint. After promising that "the future ripening of all true philosophy will be identified with the ripening of the minds of women," who are more platonistic and immaterialistic than men, the writer proceeds to develop the "sexhood theory," which she had applied in religion, with reference to morals also. By introspection, and by subjecting all opinions elsewhere derived to self-appeal till her intuitions are contented, she seeks to reach the distinctively woman's view of morals, which it is assumed will rest less upon the science of ethics (which relates only to conduct, and is more masculine) than upon religious morality, which is more feminine and emotional. The general result attained by this method is that neither empiricism nor supernaturalism can give the true basis of morals, but that the comparative ethics of sexhood must be "developmental," and must rest on a sense of duty as the most personal of all our sensations, and one which can have no strength, at least to women, if impersonal or if undirected either to God or to human beings. The power of truth, whether intellectual or moral, is at bottom loyalty, and implies a will subordinated to the general order of things in the universe. Duty thus involves dualism. The authoress's "sense of deepness," always shocked whenever serious works are addressed—as are most except the Bible and much of Mill and Comte—to men readers only, was especially wounded by Herbert Spencer's theory, that a sense of duty diminishes with increasing moralization, till only pure spontaneity remains. This, and the position he ascribes to women

generally, makes a very different ethics and sociology from his own—probably her own—the logical culmination of all of Spencer's works preceding his "Ethics." The fact of dying and the dread of death are the basis of awe, and therefore, when softened by a slowly unfolding trust in nature despite death, of religion. Notwithstanding its peculiar stringency of style, modelled on that of Comte, which makes it hard reading, the work is not without much suggestiveness, especially on account of its frankness.

The third number of the "Schweizerisches Idiotikon" lies completed before us, and gives evidence of rare linguistic ability combined with the most laborious industry on the part of the two editors, Profs. Fr. Staub and Ludwig Tobler. It embraces only the German dialects of Switzerland, and is the result of the co-operation of more than 400 contributors from all classes of the people. From 1862, when the Society of Antiquaries in Zurich first appointed a commission for the purpose, contributions have been pouring in from teachers and clergymen, from Government employees and professional men, from linguists and from untrained agriculturists, to illustrate the Swiss dialects in every manner and shape; even foreign university professors have extended a helping hand. To digest the contents of all these manuscripts, a corps of assistants has been busily engaged for ten years; the federal and some cantonal governments have contributed to the national work by aiding it financially. The dictionary is published by J. Huber, at Frauenfeld, in Roman type and quarto size, with two columns to the page, and is edited after the most approved method of modern lexicography. The quaint and ever-varying pronunciation of the various cantons necessitated the use of a linguistic alphabet with some letters bearing diacritical marks, and also a peculiar alphabetic order, by which, for instance, the words beginning with vowels had all to be brought together on account of their interchangeability in passing from one valley to another. Whenever a term is used in several significations, these are presented in the order of their historic evolution. The key to this evolution is furnished by the etymology of the word, and particular pains are taken to elucidate the linguistic origin at the end of each item. The principal dialectic variations of the terms are often helpful in disclosing the etymology, and a full array of them is quoted after each heading. References taken from early and recent authors, from proverbs, popular songs, ditties, and other folk-lore, from every-day conversation and from other sources, are given in profusion as helps for establishing the various definitions of a term. Wherever it is desirable, other German dialects are adduced to prove certain acceptations of a word of rare occurrence. The references from Swiss authors date back to the sixteenth century, although a few go back to the thirteenth, in order to exhibit fully the historic connection of the present idioms with those of former centuries, especially with the period called *Mittelhochdeutsch*, whose chief literary products sprang from Southern Germany and contain many vocables identical with or closely akin to terms found occurring at the present time only in German Switzerland. That the Swiss dialects are, linguistically speaking, the most important German dialects was stated long ago by the celebrated Jacob Grimm. The "Idiotikon" gives the derivatives under the heading of the base or stem of which they form compounds—e. g., *Unachtsami* under *Acht*, *Schifferi* under *Eri*. Political and ecclesiastical history, economy, husbandry, local and personal nomenclature, are equally well illustrated by the rich contents of this laborious publication, and there is no end

to appellations from the domain of natural science; thus we find the names of several hundred species of apples and more than thirty species of potatoes. Very amusing and instructive at the same time are the popular rhymes illustrating the customs, habits, and practical philosophy of the country rustics.

—Some points of general interest are developed in the introduction to the 'Bibliographie de l'Astronomie' (by J. C. Houzeau, Director of the Royal Observatory of Brussels, and A. Lancaster, Librarian of the same), the fourth and last fascicule of the second volume of which has lately appeared. The authors have tabulated the number of astronomical papers by the dates of publication, from 1600 to 1880, and have plotted the results in a *Courbe des Travaux astronomiques*, which illustrates with striking effect the rapidity with which the number of these articles is increasing with the time. Political revolutions have but slightly affected this progressive activity—excepting only the great wars of the First French Empire, which occasioned a remarkable decrease in the number of papers, the epoch of greatest depression being the year 1815. Important astronomical discoveries and events have had the most marked effect in stimulating the production of astronomical works; for example, the last transit of Venus, 1874, and the discovery of Neptune, 1846. Of some 1,800 articles indexed in this volume of the 'Bibliographie,' 6,000 are written in the French language, 5,800 in English, 4,400 in German, 800 in Italian, and 600 in Latin—the remaining 400 being divided unevenly among nine other languages. The four most prolific names are those of Secchi, Lalande, Zach, and Bessel, while those who have averaged the greatest number of papers per annum during the period of their activity are Flammarion, Secchi, and Proctor. The sections of this volume are nine in number, and relate to the History of Astronomy, Biography, Spherical Astronomy, Theoretical Astronomy, Celestial Mechanics, Astronomical Physics, Practical Astronomy. Monographs on the principal bodies of the Solar System, and Stellar Astronomy. The first and third volumes, being thought of less pressing importance than the second, will be published subsequently, and will relate the first to Works (or separate publications), and the third to Observatories and the observations made at them.

#### BARTLETT'S FAMILIAR QUOTATIONS.

*Familiar Quotations*: Being an Attempt to Trace to their Sources Passages and Phrases in Common Use. By John Bartlett. Eighth edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1882.

THE appearance of a new edition of this useful handbook will be welcomed by all lovers of good literature, especially when they learn that "the present edition contains quotations from one hundred and twenty-five authors who are not represented in any former edition." From its modest beginning, in 1855, in a little volume of less than three hundred pages, mostly confined to quotations from the English poets, down to the present substantial one, more than three times as large, and containing a medley of citations, prose as well as poetical, and from various languages, we have remarked a constant increase in its usefulness. For literary workers it has become a *vade-mecum*, not only on account of the wide range of its selections and the completeness of its index, but especially for its accuracy in citation, by which it has enabled every one to discharge with great saving of time and trouble the much-neglected duty of "verifying quotations." It is by far the best collection of quotations that has ever appeared in any country or in any language; and whoever will undertake

the task of preparing a similar manual from the Greek and Latin writers will deserve well of all classical scholars. But while we cheerfully bear witness to its steady improvement, we must hint to the author that if it has increased in bulk, so has it in price; and, as there would seem to be no limit to its future size, we would whisper gently in his ear the saying of Callimachus: "τὸ μέγα βιβλίον τον εἶναι τῷ μεγάλῳ κακῷ."

Naturally, many persons must have contributed to the production of this work, and to some of them the author makes grateful acknowledgment, while stating that the "editorial labors" have been shared with another gentleman. To this divided responsibility possibly we may attribute certain faults in its execution which may readily be corrected in subsequent editions. There are far too many commonplace quotations from inferior writers, which neither are nor deserve to become "familiar," by whose removal space would be gained for important contributions from better sources. The suggestion of parallelisms of expression, and the hunting up of instances of the use of the same thought or figure of speech by different authors, has been carried to an inordinate length. On comparing the present with the last edition, we remark at once a great improvement in the index of authors, which in that was disfigured by numerous errors in alphabetizing. Of course we have a right to expect as one of the chief merits in such a work scrupulous accuracy, both in giving the quotation and the place where it is to be found. Some slips in this regard which we have detected we will proceed to point out, as well as to make our contribution toward the improvement of the work by suggesting certain omissions, which may be remedied in future editions.

Among the new authors, Omar Khayyám makes his début somewhat unluckily, as "pity" is printed for "piety" and "conceal" for "cancel" in Fitzgerald's translation of the 'Rubaiyat,' st. lxxi.; and we do not understand why the striking and often-quoted couplet from st. lxvii. should not also have been given: "Heaven but the vision of fulfilled desire, And Hell the shadow of a soul on fire." We miss the name of Matthew Arnold from the list of contributors, although space has been found for that of S. J. Arnold; but surely we should never have heard so much about "sweetness and light" if "Culture and Anarchy" had never been written, and he might at least have been noticed in a note to the quotation from Swift's 'Battle of the Books.' We would also suggest the admission from his 'Stanzas from the Grande Chartreuse,' of "Wandering between two worlds, one dead, the other powerless to be born," as well as "The kings of modern thought are dumb." Charles Kingsley and Mrs. Browning are each represented by a single extract, to which we would add as equally deserving candidates for the honor, "Be good, sweet maid, and let who will be clever; Do noble things, not dream them all day long," from 'A Farewell,' and "Men must work and women must weep," from 'The Three Fishers'; and for Mrs. Browning, "Knowledge by suffering entereth, And life is perfected by death," from 'A Vision of Poets,' imitated from Æschylus (Agam., 177, "Πάθει μάθει"); and from 'Aurora Leigh,' b. ii.: "God answers sharp and sudden on some prayers, And thrusts the thing we have prayed for in our face, A gauntlet with a gift in it."

Mathew Roydon gets the credit for his beautiful verses upon Sir Philip Sidney, but twice they are absurdly called "An Elegie on a Friend's Passion for his Astrophil," instead of "Elegie, or Friend's Passion," etc. Moreover, we know no reason why Prof. Child's edition of Spenser should be given as the authority for Todd's discovery that they are not the produc-

tion of Spenser. Philippe Gauthier, author of the famous "Incidit in Scyllam, cupiens vitare Charybdim" is stated to be of "about the thirteenth century," although Charles Sumner, in an elaborate article in the *Atlantic Monthly*, Dec., 1865, showed that the "twelfth" is the correct date. Buffon's celebrated phrase is quoted, "Le style est de l'homme même," although the preposition has no business there ('Œuvres Complètes,' vol. xxv., page 269). The inscription over the door of the library at Thebes is translated "Medicine for the soul," while its real meaning is not "medicine," but the place where it is dispensed. On page 423, n. 2, "another and the same" is given as the equivalent of the Latin phrase "alter et idem" instead of "aliud et idem."

Most of the quotations from Boswell's 'Johnson,' on page 317; from Wordsworth's 'Excursion,' on page 422; and from Macaulay's 'History,' on page 522, are so badly misplaced that we would advise their complete revision. We suggest the insertion of Johnson's anecdote about "the retired tallow-chandler," anno 1775, and of Macaulay's "Young Levite" ('Hist.,' vol. i, chap. 3). We should also append to the quotations from 'The Excursion,' b. iv., "Recognizes ever and anon the breeze of nature stirring in his soul," and "So build we up the Being that we are."

We sometimes notice a tendency to mutilate quotations, as in the instance from Milton's 'Samson Agonistes,' l. 120, where it reads "Ran on embattled armies clad in iron," but omits the pith of it—"And weaponless himself made arms ridiculous." So the editor quotes from the Twelfth Sonnet, "License they mean, when they cry liberty," but omits the next line, "For who loves that must first be wise and good." We are also surprised to miss from "Lycidas" l. 188, "He touched the tender stops of various quills." From Sir Thomas Browne's 'Religio Medici,' part ii., sec. 9, he takes what is said about the "music of beauty," but omits the more beautiful passage about the "music of the spheres." In the citation from Michael Drayton's lines about Marlowe, he leaves out "Had in him those brave translunar things that the first poets had."

Sometimes an authority is quoted at second hand, when a little search might have discovered the original, as in the anecdote about Burns, on page 372, taken from 'Chambers's Cyclopaedia,' instead of Lockhart's 'Life of Scott,' vol. i., chap. 4. On page 233 a blank is left, which might have been filled with the name of Mr. Broadhurst, who might thus have been easily rescued from oblivion; and the inquirer for the origin of the beautiful translation from Uhland, "Take, O boatman! thrice thy fee," might have been referred to the *Edinburgh Review* (Oct., 1832). So when Coleridge says he borrowed the expression "myriad-minded," to apply it to Shakspere, from "a Greek monk, who used it of a Patriarch of Constantinople," his error might have been corrected. The monk was Naucratius, who employs it in an encyclical letter upon the death of his teacher, S. Theodore Studita, Abbot of the Monastery of Studium, and not Patriarch (Migne, 'Patrologia' [Ser. Graec.], vol. xcix., p. 1828). The proverb about the "mills of God grinding slowly" is given from the Greek under two different forms, but we are not told that both come from an adage cited by Plutarch in his treatise "Concerning those whom God is slow to punish," chap. 3, and that the one was put into a metrical form by Henry Stephens, and inserted in his 'Thesaurus,' while the other passed into the apocryphal collection of the Sibylline Oracles.

As to what may properly be styled "familiar quotations" deserving a place in such a hand-

book as this, and what authors ought to be included in it, there must necessarily be wide diversity of opinion. But since Molière and Voltaire have both figured in the last two editions, we cannot understand why "Que diable alloit-il faire dans cette galère" ("Les Fourberies de Scapin," Act ii., Sc. 11); or "Tuer un amiral pour encourager les autres" ("Candide," chap. xxiii.); or "Le superflu chose très-nécessaire" ("Le Mondain," 1736), should all have been omitted. Of course the miscellaneous appendix is capable of indefinite expansion, and naturally will include many familiar quotations from the Greek and Latin; but we should certainly recommend as candidates for admission such as are almost universally misquoted, like "Ne sutor supra crepidam" (Plin. "Hist. Nat.", xxxv., 36, 12—not "ultra"), or "Non passibus aequis" (Verg. "Aen." ii., 724—not "haud"), or "Dictum sapienti" (Plaut. "Pers." iv., 7, 19; Ter. "Phor." iii., 3, 8—not "verbum"). There are also many phrases, particularly Latin ones, whose origin is not generally known, and these it might be proper to put upon record in a place where they would naturally be sought for. Such are "E pluribus unum" (Verg. "Moretum," l. 103; Cie. "De Off." i., 17), and "Manus hac inimica tyrannis Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem," which assuredly should find a place in such a Boston book. About the origin of this quotation there is some uncertainty. A correspondent of *Notes and Queries*, March 10, 1866, stated that the first line is to be found in a patent granted in 1616 by Camden (Clarendon), from which it may have been borrowed by Algernon Sidney. It was written by him in the Album of the University of Copenhagen, according to a letter of his father ("Familiar Letters written by John, late Earl of Rochester and other persons of honor and quality"), or in that of the King's Library, according to the statement of Lord Molesworth, who adds that it was torn out by the French Ambassador ("An account of Denmark as it was in the year 1692"). We would call to the editor's notice another elaborate article by Charles Sumner in the *Atlantic Monthly*, Nov., 1863, upon the origin of the famous compliment paid to Franklin, "Eripuit celo fulmen, sceptrumque tyrannis"; also a paper in the Transactions of the Cambridge Philological Society, vol. i., page 47, showing how the phrase "In puris naturalibus" is entirely misapplied, in borrowing it from the scholastic philosophy, in which it denotes "the natural powers of man prior to divine grace." "Stare super vias antiquas" is to be found in the Vulgate, Jeremiah, vi., 16; "Habent sua fata libelli" in Terentianus Maurus, "De Syllabis," v. 1007; "Pereant qui ante nos nostra dixerunt," in Donatus, apud S. Hieronymum, "Comm. in Eccles." l. 9 (Migne "Patrol." [Ser. Lat.], vol. xxx., p. 1019); "Semel insanavimus omnes," in Joh. Bapt. Mantuanus, "Eclog." i., 178; and "Perfervidum ingenium Scotorum," in the "Jesuita Vapulans" of And. Rivetus, and not in Buchanan, as has often been stated.

But as the work is principally designed to give the sources of "familiar quotations" in the English language, we will proceed to mention a few that certainly ought to have a place in it. Such are, for example, the story about "the poor and pious girl, who wrote poor and pious poetry"; this can be found in a note contributed by Richard Grant White to page 59 of the first American edition of Burton's "Book-Hunter." Another is the expression, "Sons of Liberty," which was first used by Col. Barré, in a speech on the Stamp Act, February 7, 1765. To the quotations from standard authors we would add: "The greatest clerkes ben not the wisest men," "Canterbury Tales," l. 4052 (The Reeve's Tale). "I think we do know the sweet Roman-

hand," "Twelfth Night," Act iii., Sc. 4. "Outdid the meat, outdid the frolic wine," Herrick, "Ode for Ben Jonson." "Here are sands, ignoble things, Dropped from the ruined sides of kings," Fr. Beaumont, "On the Tombs in Westminster Abbey." "While his off-heel, insidiously aside, Provokes the caper which he seems to hide," Sheridan, Prol. to "Pizarro." "Doing good, Disinterested good is not our trade," Cowper, "Task," b. i., l. 675. "Not rough nor barren are the winding ways Of hoar antiquity, but strewn with flowers," Warton, Sonnet written in Dugdale's "Monasticon." "Rushed into the field, and foremost fighting fell," "Childe Harold," c. iii., st. 23. "Hiving wisdom with each studious year," id., ib., st. 107. "The fatal facility of the octosyllabic verse," Preface to "Corsair." "Handsome is that handsome does," "Vicar of Wakefield," ch. i. "Fair exchange was never robbery," "The Antiquary," ch. xxxviii. (Motto, Old Play). "Those blessed consolations in distress," Preface to the "Excursion." "Those old credulities to nature dear," Wordsworth, "Memorials of a Tour in Italy," iv. "O be wiser thou, Instructed that true knowledge leads to love," id., "Lines left upon a yew-tree seat." "His honor rooted in dishonor stood, And faith unfaithful kept him falsely true," "Idyls of the King" ("Elaine," l. 873). "The long, mechanic pacings to and fro, The set, gray life and apathetic end," Tennyson, "Love and Duty." "Like glimpses of forgotten dreams," id., "The Two Voices." "Laurel greener from the brow of him that uttered nothing base," id., "To the Queen." "Olympian bards who sung Divine ideas below; Which always find us young, And always keep us so," Emerson, "Ode to Beauty." "Hammer in the Horologe of Time," Carlyle, "On History," and "Death of Göthe." "The one thing finished in this hasty world," Lowell, "The Cathedral."

Want of space and no lack of material compels us to pause here, with the suggestion to the editor that he is slightly inconsistent in not placing beyond question the origin of the motto on his title page from Montaigne ("Essays," b. iii., ch. xii.), as its paternity has frequently been questioned. We will append such minor errors or misprints as we have noted. Page 138, line 3 from bottom, "Res" is printed instead of "Re"; page 154, line 3 from bottom, "Ibid" for "Book ii., Song 2"; page 167, line 20, "vol." for "book"; page 196, line 3 from bottom, "14" for "13"; page 212, line 4 from bottom, "n. 4" for "3," and for "ad. fin. 1" read "sect. vi., par. 18, 1"; page 253, line ult., for "278" read "298"; page 366, line 15, for "2" read "11"; page 364, n. i., read "page 606." On page 261 the quotation from Aaron Hill is printed as if the two stanzas were separated instead of successive, and the same is true, on page 387, of those from Burns's "Ae Fond Kiss"; on p. 360 the quotation from Cowper, "Task," book i., l. 702, belongs to book ii., same line; while in the index of authors, "Browne, Wm.," read "154"; "Darwin, Erasmus," add "423"; and "Shenstone," add "458."

*Outlines of the Life of Shakespeare.* By J. O. Halliwell-Phillipps, F.R.S., etc. The second edition. London, 1882. 703 pp.

DOES it ever occur to us how deeply we are indebted to Shakespeare, not only for what he has done, but for what he has not done—for his virtues of omission as well as his virtues of commission? We may try to estimate what we owe him for his revelations of our springs of action, for his profound philosophy, for the matchless beauty of his poetry, for the harmony of his verse; but all these elements, and many more, do not exhaust his claims upon our gratitude.

To a less degree, of course, these may be found in other poets. But more is Shakespeare's due for two other things which he did not do—viz., he did not read his proof-sheets, and he did not write an autobiography. No lover of his kind can contemplate with composure the idleness and torpor that would have benumbed editorial brains for the last hundred and fifty years had Shakespeare bequeathed to us his immortal dramas with every word spelled right, and all commas duly marshalled. Where would have been that ambition whose height is reached in the fit location of a semi-colon? Of what earthly use would be all our knowledge of ancient sports and pastimes, of unique black-letter volumes, or of Elizabethan learning generally, if we could not display it in explanation of "Vllorxa," or that "dram of eale," or if any schoolgirl could see through "runaway eyes"? Verily, a deep debt of gratitude the world owes to "the divine Williams" for his contempt of printers, and to Isaac Jaggard and Edward Blount for deserving that contempt by issuing in 1623 that precious, misspelled, ill-punctuated First Folio; and the uncertainty of Shakespeare's text extends to the details of his life. We do not even know for certain the day of his birth, and we doubt the manner of his death; and how he amassed his large fortune is the wonder and despair of modern playwrights. It is even denied point-blank that he ever wrote any of the plays which pass under his name; that at most he merely copied them off, so that Heming and Condell could with truth affirm that there was "scarce a blot in his papers." This misty vagueness envelops even his tomb, bearing an epitaph which was written we are scarcely sure by whom, breathing a curse we scarcely know for what. The portraits of him that survive present every style of feature, passing in a series, from the familiar face to a resemblance to the newly elected Governor of Massachusetts, and so on to what is like nothing in the heavens above, or the earth beneath, or the waters under the earth. It is not to be supposed that the man and poet is for us only this dim outline because we will not rub our eyes and look for him. We have rubbed our eyes in search of him until they would gaze an eagle blind, but no clearer can we see him. Every nook and corner, cranny and crevice has been ransacked, but no vivid image of the man is to be found, and the supreme god of Olympus is quite as distinct a personality to us as the god of Stratford.

For this impenetrable obscurity shrouding his outward life, as has just been said, we should be duly grateful to Shakespeare. It permits every worshipper to mould his own image of his god. Just as the eye sees what the eye brings with it the power of seeing, so every reader will detect in Shakespeare's plays precisely those indications of his outward workday life with which that reader is most familiar—the actor will detect the actor and stage-manager; the sailor will recognize his own and claim Shakespeare for an old salt; the lawyer, the physician, the traveler, the soldier all hail him as a comrade. And in order to give every one a chance to substantiate his claim, Shakespeare, with a kindly, superhuman prescience, which does not surprise us, left five years of his mortal life an absolute, total blank, and in these five years he may be supposed to have served an apprenticeship to every trade and calling under the sun. From 1587 to 1592 he can be made to travel in Italy, to fight abroad, to sail the seas to the next Bermoothes, to act in Scotland, to act in London, to study the classics, to carouse at the Mermaid, to stroll in Germany, to hold horses at the theatre door, to read Montaigne, to learn Rabelais, and to study law. Myriad-minded, as Co-

leridge pronounces him, he may well have been; he merely had a separate mind in each body.

The upshot of this rare combination of an imperfectly-printed text with an unknown personality has been the production of a vast amount of emendations, on the one hand, which plainly show that Shakespeare had no clear idea of what he meant to say, and, unable to endow his purposes with words, could only gabble monstrously; and, on the other, a life has been manufactured for him out of a supposed chronological order in which he wrote his plays—that he wrote tragedy when he was sad and comedy when he was merry—and this chronological order has been founded on the number of syllables in his lines. Under these circumstances, when the world is going Shakespeare mad, the appearance of a book like that before us is most timely; in it the veteran scholar, surpassed in years by only one living fellow-editor, has given us the results of his lifelong study. Here are no surmises, but statements which rest on facts which can be substantiated. Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps has here proposed to construct,

"in plain and unobtrusive language, a sketch of Shakespeare's personal history strictly out of evidences and deductions from those evidences. Subtle and gratuitous assumptions of unsupported possibilities will be rigidly excluded, and no conjectures admitted that are not practically removed out of that category by being in themselves reasonable inferences from concurrent facts."

Admirably is the proposal carried out, and, in spite of the restrictions of his rigid rule, Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps has managed with the simplicity of truth to impart great interest to the meagre, commonplace material at his command.

In recording Shakespeare's life year by year, note must necessarily be made of the successive publications of the quarto editions of his plays, and herein will be found the surest chronological order of their composition. Of course, contemporary external evidence may modify this order, and, where the plays appear only in the folio, this, with scraps of internal evidence, is the only evidence we have; but all internal evidence is to be regarded with great caution. As Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps well says, "allusions to such matters as storms and eclipses are exceedingly treacherous criteria" (p. 285); and when we come to deciding on the order in which they were written by the moods through which we fondly imagine Shakespeare to have passed, we are at sea without compass, chart, or rudder.

Space will not permit us to do full justice to this admirable volume. The "Outlines" are followed by over a hundred pages of "Illustrative Comments," every one of which bears witness to the painstaking zeal and accuracy of the author. By the fulness of these "Comments" we can measure the restraint which Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps put upon himself to keep from wandering, in the text, into episodes and by-paths delightful and refreshing to the scholar's heart. Then follow elaborate and exhaustive essays on some fifteen or sixteen subjects intimately connected with Shakespeare, such as "The Theatre and Curtain," "The Coventry Mysteries," "Shakespeare's Neighbours," "The Daventian Scandal" (which is, or ought to be, hereby far for ever dispelled), "The Ratsey Episode," etc., etc. We can give only a taste of their quality, for, alas! there is no table of contents. A hundred and fifty pages of "Documentary Appendix" close this invaluable book, which let any one read, learn, and inwardly digest, and we will guarantee him against all attacks of Shakespearian megrims, such as Baconian theories, or theories that "the poet, when engaged in dramatic writing, placed before his eyes an elabo-

rate map of the scenes of his plot, or reckoned the exact number of hours to be taken by a character in moving from one spot to another; or, in the composition of each line of verse, repeated the syllables to ascertain if they developed the style of metre it was his duty to posterity to be using at that special period of his life" (p. 102).

On one point we wish Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps had been more explicit. On page 97 he says that "Love's Labour's Lost" "received some additions and improvements from the hands of the author," and on page 216, that "2 Henry VI." "may have been retouched by the author after its first production." These statements certainly countenance a theory which we hope Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps does not advisedly maintain—that Shakespeare remodelled his plays, or rewrote them—a belief which cart-ropes could not draw us into. A poet who could write "The Merry Wives" in a fortnight would never spend his time in rewriting anything that had once, in all its completeness, left his teeming brain. Must we for ever forget that Shakespeare wrote his plays to be seen and heard, and not to be read, and pondered over, and studied? Did Shakespeare make any corrections, or additions, or changes in "Venus and Adonis," the first heir of his invention, wherein, if ever, his maturity could have detected flaws? Or in his "Lucrece," the most popular of all his poems? Shall we never learn that in studying Shakespeare in the quartos we are looking at him "maimed and deformed by the frauds and stealthes of injurious impostors"? The mention of "The Merry Wives" minds us to say that we are afraid that the legend that Queen Elizabeth commanded Shakespeare to portray Falstaff in love, is one of those "unsupported possibilities" which Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps led us to expect would be "rigidly excluded" from his pages. Can it perchance be a "reasonable inference from concurrent facts"?

*Tunis. The Land and the People.* By the Chevalier de Hesse-Wartegg. With twenty-two illustrations. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE Chevalier de Hesse-Wartegg appears to have made a good use of his time while in Tunis last year. Armed with special privileges, including the honorary title of Colonel in the Tunisian Army, he visited many places which unofficial Europeans probably rarely see, and had many opportunities for observing the working of the Government and the daily life of the people. These things he describes pleasantly, although we confess to a feeling of uncertainty at times as to whether he is relating what he himself has witnessed or what he has got from "other communications placed at" his disposal. His book, however, is a clear, and doubtless an accurate, account of the condition of Tunis at the time of the French occupation. He very carefully avoids any discussion of the causes or description of the events leading to the annexation of the country, the name even of M. Roustan not being mentioned throughout the work.

The city of Tunis, the second in point of size in Africa, differs but little in its essential features from other Oriental cities. A few clean and well-paved streets are to be found in the European quarter, but the great obstacle to improvement in this direction is the fact that so much of the land is owned by the mosques. This can never be sold, although estates may be exchanged. But the ground in which a saint is buried "must never be touched, but must remain in the same state, even if situated in the centre of commercial intercourse or before the palace of the Bey." These tombs appear to be numerous, and "woe to him who touches them! A Jew who some years ago put his foot on one of them to lace his shoe was instantly killed by fanatical

Mussulmans." Architecturally considered, the city is uninteresting. There are "some pretty mosques, grand palaces, and, distributed here and there, some costly fragments of Moorish architecture." But the inexhaustible quarry of building material, ready cut and ornamented, furnished by the neighboring ruins of Carthage, would seem to have prevented the full development of the powers of the Arabian architects. For "in every second house are found Roman stones with inscriptions or sculptures, parts of columns and capitals. If Tunis were destroyed, her ruins would be the ruins of Carthage!" This seems to be equally true of other places throughout the Regency. "All these towns, with their palaces, mosques, towers, and walls, are built from the splendid stones of these Roman ruins." With other travellers, the Chevalier calls attention to the rich and comparatively unexplored field which the country presents to the archaeologist. Under the new régime, it is to be hoped that scientific explorations will be instituted in the remains of Carthage, Utica, and the Roman towns in the south. Another circumstance which adds to the number of ruins is that, "according to a Tunisian custom, a reigning Bey must not live in a palace where one of his predecessors died." Mohamedia, built about thirty-five years ago for Achmet Bey at a cost of \$2,000,000, was dismantled at his death. "The furniture was moved; the floors, glazed tiles, doors and windows were broken out and dragged to another palace. The heavy marble columns, statuary, the curbs of the wells, etc., remained behind with the walls, and he who passes these imposing ruins to-day might think thousands of years have passed over them." Fortunately, the same fate does not await the Bardo, the great palace just outside the city walls, "a kind of fortified town by itself," as Mohammed Bey died in the Kasr-Said, a villa built by one of his ministers.

The Chevalier gives a favorable impression of this unfortunate monarch, describing him as an intelligent man "very familiar with European matters," and occupying "himself in his leisure hours with the reading of Arabian books, and photography, in which he has attained a certain dexterity." In some respects he was far from being the type of an Oriental ruler. "He hates women," the Chevalier tells us, and his mode of life was very simple. As a just judge, he enjoyed "the best reputation with the natives as well as with the Europeans, and all the sentences I have heard, or which have been reported to me, show a sound judgment, and even something of that Solomonic wisdom which distinguished Oriental Caliphs centuries ago." Unlike his predecessors, he was very reluctant to pronounce the death sentence. "When he is compelled to do so, he spends the day in prayer, and is wholly inaccessible." The best chapter in the book is that describing the "court of justice" held by him every Saturday, at which all were free to bring their cases for his decision. "A strange incident occurred some years ago during one of these judicial sittings. A Moor approached the throne silently, holding a large sack in his hand, out of which rolled two human heads bleeding, one a man's, the other a woman's. The Bey looked first at the heads, then at the Moor, and without saying a word made the sign which meant acquittal. It was simply a husband who had discovered his wife was deceiving him. In his excitement he made use of his traditional right to kill her and her lover, and presented himself the very same day before the Bey to confess his deed, not in words, but more significantly by showing the heads of the transgressors." His brother, Sidi-Ali, who has just been invested by the French Resident, M. Cambon, with the now merely nominal title of Bey, is comparatively

but little known. It is significant, however, that he alone of all the royal princes and ministers of the late Bey has "kept to the Arabian dress." The French press generally describe him as thoroughly devoted to the interests of France, and "at heart a Frenchman."

The various officials, from the Grand Vizier down, appear to be equally grasping and unscrupulous. Their extortions are such that the peasants suffer intolerable oppression, and many rich Moors avoid all appearance of wealth and live in comparative squalor, or enroll themselves under one of the Consulates, thereby escaping Tunisian jurisdiction and taxation. In order to do this, it is necessary to "prove a real or imaginary descent from Europeans. In most cases the Spanish Moors have to serve as ancestors, and the Spanish Consulate has to undertake the protection." Even the late Bey's Grand Vizier, formerly a barber, and the first native Tunisian who has held this position, "has entered his name on the list of the French Embassy."

The Jews form about a third of the population, and, though till recently subject to great oppressions and humiliations, are now, since the restrictions on their liberties have been removed, increasing in numbers, wealth, and social position. "They build new houses in European style, show themselves in smart, new dresses, and, owing to their intellectual superiority, get business into their own hands with surprising rapidity." Their habits of life are described with much detail, and an entertaining account is given of a Jewish wedding, in which there was an extraordinary display of jewels and rich dresses. The author also devotes a few words to some nomad Jews living with the Hammama Bedouins: "They have adopted the habits and customs, and also the dress, of the nomads completely, so that they can scarcely be distinguished; the Bedouins alone know them. They look after the trade of the tribe with whom they live; they buy and sell wool and skins, sell the goods stolen by the Bedouins, and supply the latter with the intoxicating Lacm—*tout comme chez nous*. They are, however, not allowed to marry into the tribe, nor to pitch their tents among the Arabs. They live outside the encampment—a Jews' quarter, built of tents." While speaking in general very favorably of them, the Chevalier accuses the women of a want of chastity: "Whole streets, and even quarters, swarm with Jewish houses of ill-fame"—which, if true, we are inclined to think is exceptional. Of the European residents in Tunis he says, that "in dress and general appearance they remain true to their origin, . . . but in their home-life they imitate the Orientals only too much."

In the second part of his book, the Chevalier gives some account of the provincial towns of Tunis, of which Sfax, distinguished for the industry and prosperity of her inhabitants, is one of the most important. As in Persia, so in Tunis, native manufactures, especially of carpets, are suffering from the introduction of European designs. "Only in the holy town of Kairwan [sic] has their carpet industry been preserved in its old glory." Everywhere, in fact, in the house architecture and interior ornaments, as well as in the street costumes, is to be seen that incongruous and thoroughly ugly mixture of the East and the West of which all recent travellers in Mohammedan countries speak. The Chevalier writes enthusiastically of the beauty of the great palm forests in the oases in the south, which furnish the dates that form so important a part of the Tunisian exports. It is to be noted that Mr. Broadley, the *Times* correspondent, and author of the latest book on Tunis, asserts that the late Bey protested firmly, and with reason, against the French scheme of flooding the schotts or salt lakes, on

the ground that the excessive humidity would make all the dates uneatable, as is now the case with those growing in the oases bordering on the sea.

To some perfectly excusable infelicities of style, is added in this book a carelessness in spelling foreign words, which it is less easy to forgive. We have already called attention to a curious misspelling of the name of a prominent town, which is also to be found in the English edition. Other forms of the same place are Kairwan and Kerwan. We have also remarked Cheir-ed Din and Kereddin, shachia and shechia, kuffla and kufia.

*Memoir of John A. Dahlgren, Rear-Admiral, U. S. N.* By his widow, Madeleine Vinton Dahlgren. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

It was hardly to be expected that a memoir of Admiral Dahlgren should be entertaining. Laborious, persevering, intelligent, and brave, his services were useful, but he seems not to have had a spark of the genius that kindles the imagination and captivates the fancy of men. For the last two years of the war he commanded the great fleet, sometimes numbering ninety-six vessels, before Charleston. In this command he showed an energy and personal courage above criticism, which called forth a warm eulogium from General Sherman. But the conditions did not admit of success, and beyond the blockade of the port his efforts were fruitless. His name is hardly remembered in connection with the operations about Charleston, and popular attention at the time was mainly directed to the Army. Admiral Dahlgren felt the injustice of this, and attributed it in part to unworthy conduct by General Gillmore. Hence, much wrath and bitterness, which is reproduced here from his private journal, apparently with little reserve or discretion, as, for instance, where a passage is quoted in which the Admiral speaks of a letter from General Gillmore as "a mean-spirited, craven, white-feathered concern."

Admiral Dahlgren's chief fame rests on his ordnance service, and, here, again, his career was quite free from those vicissitudes which sometimes make an inventor's life appeal so strongly to the feelings. When he was fourteen years old his father died, and at sixteen he was appointed a midshipman in the Navy. From that time his future was assured, and he was free from all anxiety for means of support. His investigations and trials were made by him in his official capacity, in the regular line of his duty in a Navy-yard fitted up for him on his own plans. Under these circumstances, the complaints in his journal, echoed by his biographer, of the cruel injustice of the Government in not paying him largely for his inventions, are open to question. These were, however, creditable and useful. The first was a percussion lock. He next devised bronze boat and field guns for naval use, which were adopted and are still retained. They are light and handy and can be fired as often as ten times a minute, but can hardly claim originality of principle as inventions. The production of the Dahlgren gun was the best achievement of the Admiral's life. It was a great advance on all our guns, including the old army Columbiad. It led to the new Columbiad and the Rodman guns, if it was not, as its inventor maintained, identical with them. Its endurance was not increased or diminished by casting hollow by Rodman's method, but its life was shortened by any variation from its regular model. It placed the United States in advance of the rest of the world "in the perfection of figure, material, and fabrication of its cast-iron guns." It revolutionized the armament of our ships of war. It was essentially a shell gun, though it was strong enough for solid shot.

Shell guns were not new to the Navy, but their use had been neglected, and the skill and drill necessary for this more complicated service had not been cultivated. Admiral Dahlgren's influence was sufficient to have the *Merrimac* and *Plymouth* armed with his guns and provided with shells exclusively, for trial trips. The result was so satisfactory that this system became the rule in the Navy. These guns, with Parrott rifles, did nearly all the work of the Navy, afloat and ashore, during the war.

In 1864 the guns had a famous victory in the fight between the *Kearsarge* and *Alabama*. It was fought in smooth water, at a distance of 700 yards, or within easy range of the broadside 32s of each vessel. The armaments were singularly equal, the *Kearsarge* carrying one gun less than the *Alabama*, but having a greater weight of broadside. The *Alabama* had an English 68-pounder, then considered in England the best gun ever made, and one 7-inch rifled Blakely gun. These were balanced on the *Kearsarge* by two pivot Dahlgren 11-inch guns. In an hour the *Alabama* struck, and in twenty minutes more she sank. At the close of the war the Chief of the Ordnance Bureau said in his annual report: "But a single gun of the Dahlgren system has burst prematurely." This is a noble record, and the inventor's name will live in connection with his gun as Bormann's does with his fuse, Parrott's and Armstrong's with their rifles.

There seems to be some mystery about the origin of this invention. Admiral Dahlgren says he has often explained it, but never published it; that it did not depend on experiments, but on a principle; that it resulted from considering all the strains to which a gun was subjected. It does not appear whether he included among these the expansion of the bore from the heat of the explosion, as in Norman Wiard's theory. The likeness of the guns to soda-bottles is notorious. Could it have been that the inventor in a moment of reflection was struck with the virtue of a shape which even in glass could cope successfully with the embarrassing explosive energy of this popular beverage?

The book is bulky and diffuse, and its tone naturally partial and undiscriminating. It is largely composed of extracts from the Admiral's diary, giving a mass of details of his life, which may be useful for reference (though there is no index), but which are often as dry as his ship's log. His rivalries and animosities are needlessly revived, and sometimes supported with some disingenuousness. For example, the Department, without consulting the Admiral, had a 15-inch gun altered by reaming out the chamber and reducing the chase, and other guns were made on this model. Whereupon his widow remarks: "The Assistant Secretary—the would-be inventor of a bigger gun than the Dahlgren—was a worthy gentleman who was placed fresh from the successful manufacture and sale of woollen cloth in New England in a high sphere of official dignity at a critical moment in the country's history." This is all quite true, but it does not convey the fact that this gentleman's fitness for his position and success in it came from his regular training and ample service as an officer in the Navy.

*Selections from the Poetry of Robert Herrick.*  
With Drawings by Edwin A. Abbey. Harper & Bros.

THIS quarto volume, despite its flamboyant cover, is one of the two or three foremost holiday publications of the present season on this side of the water. Its manufacture is so far an "international episode" that the types were derived from a London establishment, while Mr. Austin Dobson furnishes a preface; and Mr. Abbey, it is

well known, caught his inspiration for this special task amid the scenes which Herrick's muse delighted in. Some, and perhaps all of the landscapes, are localizable. These, by the way, are the freshest part of the illustrations (for the figure pieces have mostly appeared already in *Harper's Magazine*); and such a one as that which beautifies page 5, or the snow scene on page 54, or again the charming lane on page 69, and incidentally the rural outlines in a number of plates, show no mean strength in the vein natural to American art. Mr. Abbey's figures are in general solidly conceived and drawn, though there are extremes of care and negligence in this respect; his compositions are graceful, and he is particularly successful in expressing movement, for the best example of which, and perhaps of his manner and imagination, his "To be Merry" may be cited (p. 66). No suite is to our mind quite so successful and harmonious as that of the "Discourse of Neatherd's" (p. 9), in which every one of the five designs is admirable—a little pastoral in itself. Mr. Abbey's women are, whether of high or low degree, attractively and characteristically portrayed, as, to name a few, the damsel in "Delight in Disorder," "Mistress Susanna Southwell," "Chloris Walking in the Snow," "Musique," and the maid retreating from the room "upon Candlemas Eve." On the other hand, the physiognomy of tinkers, cobblers, the bellman, is humorously seized in its minutest details. Indeed, Mr. Abbey's mastery of expression in the human countenance is far more subtle on a small than on a large scale: compare Sappho (p. 42), Dianeme (p. 139), Cuffe (p. 140), with any of the smaller personages in his gallery.

On the whole, Mr. Abbey must be allowed to have wrought congenially with a poet whose verse would bankrupt the ordinary designer. His friend, Mr. Alfred Parsons, to whom he dedi-

cates the fruit of his labors, and who contributes some of the head and tail-pieces, has been felicitous in his way also. Finally, the publishers have done exceedingly well by Herrick and his artist friends, and spared no pains upon the typography and presswork.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Abbey, E. A. Selections from Robert Herrick, with Drawings. Harper & Bros.
- Adams, W. H. D. Page, Squire, and Knight: a Romance of the Days of Chivalry. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. \$1.75.
- American Additions to Chambers's Encyclopaedia. Complete in four vols. S. W. Green's Son.
- Arr, E. H. New England Bygones. New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.50.
- Baker, G. The Legendary History of Rome. R. Worthington. \$7.50.
- Barill, A. G. A Whimsical Wooing. Wm. S. Gottsberger.
- Berger, F. New Method of Learning the French Language. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.
- Braddon, Miss M. E. Flower and Weed: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
- Brown, Thierlein. Chromo-Ausgabe. Parts 54-60. R. Westermann & Co.
- Bromfield, E. T. Picturesque Journeys in America of the Junior United Tourist Club. R. Worthington. \$1.75.
- Brush, Mary E. Paul and Persis; or, The Revolutionary Struggle in the Mohawk Valley. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
- Buckley, Arabella B. Winners in Life's Race. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.50.
- Busch, W. Pilch and Plum. From the German. Boston: Robert Bros.
- Butterworth, H. Zigzag Journeys in the Occident. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. \$1.75.
- Campbell, Helen. The Problem of the Poor. Fords, Howard & Hubert. 90 cents.
- Clark, E. L. Fundamental Questions, Chiefly Relating to the Book of Genesis and the Hebrew Scriptures. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.
- Coffin, C. C. Winning His Way. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. \$1.25.
- Coffin, C. C. Building the Nation. Harper & Bros.
- Crane, T., and Houghton, Ellen. Abroad. [Colored Picture-Book.] Marcus Ward & Co. \$2.50.
- D'Anvers, N. Lowest Forms of Water Animals. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
- De Amicis, E. Sketches of Military Life in Italy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.
- Dies Irie. Erinnerungen eines französischen Officers an die Tage von Sedan. B. Westermann & Co. 80 cents.
- Doyle, J. N. English Colonies in America: Virginia, Maryland, and the Carolinas. Henry Holt & Co. \$3.50.
- Five Little Flower Songs. Boston: A. Williams & Co. 50 cents.
- Foxwell, Mrs. I Have Lived and Loved. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.
- H. W. Our Boys in India. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$2.50.
- Gardner, E. C. The House that Gill Built: a Book on Home Architecture. Fords, Howard & Hubert.
- Golden Floral. The Breaking Waves Dashed High. Abide with Me. Now to My God, to Thee, Home, Sweet Home. Oh, Why Should the Spirit of Mortal be Froud? Rock of Ages. He Giveth His Beloved Sleep. Ring Out, Wild Bells. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.75 each.
- Golden Thoughts on Mother, Home, and Heaven, from Poetic and Prose Literature of all Ages and Lands. Revised and enlarged. E. B. Treat. \$2.75.
- Grant, R. The Lambs: a Tragedy. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
- Greenaway, Kate. Almanac for 1883. George Routledge & Sons. 50 cents.
- Gross, J. B. What Makes Us Unhappy? Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.
- Harris, Anna B. Wild Flowers, and Where They Grow. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. \$1.
- Hastings, H. L. Fireside Readings for Happy Homes. Boston: H. L. Hastings. \$1.25.
- Herbert, George. The Temple: Sacred Poems and Private Escrinations. Facsimile Reprint of First Edition, 1638. Scribner & Welford. \$2.
- Holmes, O. W. The Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table. New and revised ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$2.
- Holtzendorff, F. von. Encyclopädie der Rechtswissenschaft. 4th ed. B. Westermann & Co.
- Jennings, J. A. Reading from Charles Dickens. Dublin: Carson Bros.
- Kaspas Hauser. B. Westermann & Co.
- Knight, C. The Works of William Shakspeare. In 3 vols. George Routledge & Sons. \$2.75.
- Student's Companion to the Revised Version of the New Testament, showing the Changes in all the Words Referred to. D. Appleton & Co. \$2.50.
- Suetonius's Lives of the Twelve Caesars. R. Worthington. \$4.50.
- Sunshine in the Soul. Selected Poems. Boston: Roberts Bros.
- The Thrift Book: a Cyclopaedia of Cottage Management and Practical Economy for the People. Ward, Lock & Co. \$3.
- The Children's Circus and Menagerie Picture-Book. George Routledge & Sons. \$2.
- The Silverland Library. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
- Thompson, Mrs. E. H. Gems of Scripture and Song. Gems of Religious Literature. Gems of Literature. 3 vols. Phillips & Hunt.
- Tony Brown's School Days: Wanderings in South America: Irving's Old Christmas; and Irving's Bracebridge Hall. Many illustrations. Macmillan & Co. \$1.50.
- Vanderwater, Rosalie. Two Tea-Parties. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
- Van Dyke, T. S. The Still Hunter. Fords, Howard & Hubert. \$2.
- Watterson, H. Oddities of Southern Life and Character. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
- Wilder-Gage. Anatomical Technology as Applied to the Domestic Cat. A. S. Barnes & Co. \$4.50.
- Wilson, J. A. Song-Captives. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
- Wood, Alice, and Others. The Salmagundi Birthday Book. S. W. Green's Son.
- Yarlate, Charles. Florence: Its History—The Medicis—The Humanists—Letters—Arts. 500 engravings. Translated by C. R. Pitman. Scribner & Welford.

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